82d Congress
2d Session

COMMITTEE PRINT

HEARINGS

BEFORE THE

PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION

ON

IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION

SEPTEMBER 30, OCTOBER 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10,
11, 14, 15, 17, 27, 28, 29, 1952

Printed for the use of the Committee on the Judiciary

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HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

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PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION

PHILIP B. PERLMAN, *Chairman*
EARL G. HARRISON, *Vice Chairman*
Msgr. JOHN O'GRADY
Rev. THADDEUS F. GULLIXSON
CLARENCE E. PICKETT
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THOMAS C. FINUCANE

HARRY N. ROSENFIELD, *Executive Director*

REQUEST FOR TRANSMITTAL

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES,
COMMITTEE ON THE JUDICIARY,
Washington, D. C., October 23, 1952.

Hon. PHILIP B. PERLMAN,
Chairman, President's Commission on
Immigration and Naturalization,
Executive Office, Washington, D. C.

DEAR MR. PERLMAN: I am informed that the President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization has held hearings in a number of cities and has collected a great deal of information concerning the problems of immigration and naturalization.

Since the subject of immigration and naturalization requires continuous congressional study, it would be very helpful if this committee could have the transcript of your hearings available for its study and use, and for distribution to the Members of Congress.

If this record is available, will you please transmit it to me so that I may be able to take the necessary steps in order to have it printed for the use of the committee and Congress.

Sincerely yours,

EMANUEL CELLER, *Chairman.*

REPLY TO REQUEST

PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON
IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION,
EXECUTIVE OFFICE,
Washington, October 27, 1952.

HON. EMANUEL CELLER,
House of Representatives,
Washington, D. C.

DEAR CONGRESSMAN CELLER: Pursuant to the request in your letter of October 23, 1952, we shall be happy to make available to you a copy of the transcript of the hearings held by this Commission. We shall transmit the record to you as soon as the notes are transcribed.

The Commission held 30 sessions of hearings in 11 cities scattered across the entire country. These hearings were scheduled as a means of obtaining some appraisal of representative and responsible views on this subject. The Commission was amazed, and pleased, at the enormous and active interest of the American people in the subject of immigration and naturalization policy.

Every effort was made to obtain the opinions of all people who might have something to contribute to the Commission's consideration. All shades of opinion and points of views were sought and heard. The response was very heavy, and the record will include the testimony and statements of some 600 persons and organizations.

This record, we believe, includes some very valuable information, a goodly proportion of which has not hitherto been available in discussions of immigration and naturalization. It is of great help to the Commission in performing its duties. We hope that this material will be useful to your committee, to the Congress, and to the country.

Sincerely yours,

PHILIP B. PERLMAN, *Chairman.*

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APPENDIX: SPECIAL STUDIES

MEMORANDUM BY OSCAR HANDLIN, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, HARVARD UNIVERSITY, CONCERNING THE BACKGROUND OF THE NATIONAL-ORIGIN QUOTA SYSTEM

I. BASIC ASSUMPTIONS OF NATIONAL-ORIGINS QUOTA

This memorandum deals with one of the fundamental assumptions that lay behind the immigration legislation of 1921–24, and that animates the McCarran-Walter Act of this year. That assumption, embodied in the national-origins quota, is that the national origins of immigrants is a reliable indication of their capacity for Americanization. Generally, this assumption takes the form of an assertion that some people by their racial or national constitution are more capable of becoming Americanized than others. This is usually coupled with the assertion that the immigrants who came to the United States before 1880, the old immigrants, were drawn from the superior stocks of Northern and Western Europe, while those who came after that date were drawn from the inferior breeds of Southern and Eastern Europe.

There is a demonstrable connection between the diffusion of this assumption and the course of immigration legislation in the first quarter of the century. Those who argued in favor of a restrictionist policy did so not merely, perhaps not primarily, because they wished to reduce the total volume of immigration, but more important, because they wished to eliminate the new, while perpetuating the old immigration. This was the logic of the literacy test. Writing in the midst of the battle for its enactment, one of its leading proponents, Prescott F. Hall, pointed out:

"The theory of the educational test is that it furnishes an indirect method of excluding those who are undesirable, not merely because of their illiteracy, but for other reasons. * * * The hereditary tendencies of the peoples illiterate abroad * * * cannot be overcome in a generation or two." [1]

And, looking back at the accomplished fact, the Commissioner General of Immigration pointed out in 1923:

"The so-called literacy test for aliens was the favorite weapon of the restrictionists, and its widespread popularity appears to have been based quite largely upon a belief * * * that it would reduce the stream of new immigration * * * without seriously interfering with the coming of the older type." [2]

The literacy law, passed over President Wilson's veto in 1917, did not, however, accomplish what had been expected of it. The end of the war brought a resumption of immigration and with it a demand that the objective of keeping out the new while admitting the old immigrants be attained through the national origins device. The result was the passage of the Johnson Act of 1921. The intent of the act was clear. On the question of whether the base year should be 1910 or 1920, for instance, Representative Box pointed out: "A study of the immigration problem has disclosed the fact that during the last 20 or 30 years the older and steadier type of our immigration has been relatively small. The number of the older and better immigrants coming has been relatively much smaller during the last 10 years, and the number from Southern Europe, Italy, and Russia much greater, which will be reflected in the 1920 census. The making of the 1910 census the basis will give us more of the better and less desirable immigration than if it were based on the census of 1920." [3]

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[1] Prescott F. Hall, Immigration and Its Effects Upon the United States (N. Y., 1908, 2d edition), pp. 273–275.

[2] Annual Report of the Commissioner General of Immigration, 1923.

[3] April 21, 1921. Congressional Record, LXI, p. 558. See also the remarks to the same effect of Congressmen Johnson and Ward, Congressional Record, LXI, pp. 518, 555.

The act of 1924 which pushed the base quota year back to 1890 and consolidated the theory of national origins, was motivated by similar convictions as to the inferiority of the new immigrants. Congressman Vestal, arguing in favor of the measure, put the idea clearly. The southern and eastern immigrants of Europe, he said, "have not been of the kind that are readily assimilated or absorbed by our American life." [4]

In judging the continued validity of the national origins quota system, it therefore becomes a matter of considerable importance to ascertain how the conception originated and gained currency that the new immigrants were different from the old, that the peoples of Southern and Eastern Europe were inferior to those of Northern and Western Europe.

II. ORIGINS OF THE NEW-OLD IMMIGRATION DISTINCTION

The conception of a new immigration inferior to the old began to take form in the writings of some sociologists and social thinkers in the 1890's. At root, this conception rested on racist notions that the peoples of the Mediterranean region were biologically different from those of Northern and Western Europe. This difference, it was stated, sprang from the inferiority of blood and could visibly be observed in social characteristics. The whole argument was given very forceful expression by the distinguished anthropologist of the American Museum of Natural History in an enormously popular book:

"These new immigrants were no longer exclusively members of the Nordic race as were the earlier ones * * * The new immigration * * * contained a large and increasing number of the weak, the broken, and the mentally crippled of all races drawn from the lowest stratum of the Mediterranean basin and the Balkans, together with hordes of the wretched, submerged populations of the Polish ghettos. Our jails, insane asylums, and almshouses are filled with this human flotsam and the whole tone of American life, social, moral, and political has been lowered and vulgarized by them." [5]

These theories were bitterly and inconclusively debated through the early years of this century. The decisive turn in the argument came when they seemed to receive validation from the reports of two governmental investigations. The first was the detailed study of the Immigration Commission under the chairmanship of Senator Dillingham. The second was a report by Dr. Harry H. Laughlin of the Carnegie Institution, expert eugenics agent of the House Committee on Immigration and Naturalization.

These reports had a direct impact upon subsequent legislation, for they supplied what had formerly been theoretical opinions privately held with a validation that was official and presumably scientific. The Immigration Commission, appointed in 1907, presented its conclusions in 1910 in an impressive 42 volume report.[6] Widely quoted, it figured prominently in the deliberations which produced the Johnson Act of 1921. Congressman Box, in the speech referred to above, clearly established the connection:

"The reasons presented by the great Immigration Commission, which some years ago spent hundreds of thousands of dollars in investigation and study of this great question, present conclusive reasons why we should encourage the coming in of the class which has been extolled so highly as an element which has contributed so much to our life and why it should discourage that which comes from Russia and Southern Europe." [7]

In the same way, the Laughlin report presented in 1922 and printed in 1923, laid the groundwork for the legislation of 1924.[8] The report was widely quoted in quasi-scientific articles and entered prominently into the debate as a result of which the act of 1924 was enacted.[9] It therefore becomes a matter of prime importance to investigate the nature of those reports and the soundness of their conclusions.

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[4] Congressional Record, LXV, p. 5439.
[5] Madison Grant, The Passing of the Great Race (1916) (N. Y., Charles Scribner's Sons, 1920), pp. 86–92.
[6] Report of the Immigration Commission (42 vols., Washington, 1911).
[7] Congressional Record, LXI, 558.
[8] 73d Cong., 3d sess., Hearings Before the Committee on Immigration and Naturalization, House of Representatives, November 21, 1922. Serial 7–C.
[9] See, for example, the articles of Robert De C. Ward, Scientific Monthly, October, December 1922; and the use made of them by Congressman Vestal (Congressional Record, LXV, p. 5439).

III. THE IMMIGRATION COMMISSION (THE 1907 COMMISSION)

The Dillingham Immigration Commission was the outgrowth of a renewed attempt to enact a literacy test in 1906. The opponents of that measure hoped to block it, or at least to postpone immediate action, by calling for a commission to study the whole problem. Congressman Bartholdt who proposed the creation of such a body undoubtedly had in mind a Congressional committee such as those which had already conducted similar investigations in 1891 and 1892. This was also the expectation of Speaker Cannon who was opposed to any airing of the immigration question on the grounds that it was an issue likely to divide the Republican Party politically.

Although the question was one primarily for Congressional action, it also concerned President Theodore Roosevelt deeply. In part, he was moved by such considerations as influenced Speaker Cannon. In part, he was also concerned because he was even then engaged in the delicate diplomatic negotiations with the Japanese that would ultimately lead to the controversial gentlemen's agreement to limit Japanese immigration by the voluntary action of the Tokyo government. Roosevelt feared that agitation of the general question of immigration might upset those negotiations. Finally the President had great faith in the efficacy of fact-finding agencies as devices to evade the necessity for clear-cut political decisions.

Although the President accepted and supported the idea of such a commission, he subtly modified the conception of what it should be and do. Instead of a Congressional investigating committee, he proposed a study by a number of experts, appointed by the President; and confidentially requested Commissioner of Labor Neill, while the question was still being debated in Congress, to proceed at once to "as full an investigation of the whole subject of immigration as the facilities at hand will permit." [10] As enacted (Feb. 20, 1907), the law however provided for an investigating commission of nine, three to be chosen by the President of the Senate, three by the Speaker of the House and three experts by the President. In this form the proposal secured the acquiescence of all parties to the debate and also attracted the support of a great number of social workers and social theorists attracted by the idea of an impartial, scientific investigation as an instrument of social engineering of which there was then much talk. At this stage then there was the expectation that out of the deliberations of the Commission there would come a body of verified and undisputable facts that would supply the groundwork for future action. President Roosevelt summed up these expectations in a message to Speaker Cannon when he expressed the hope that from the work of the Commission would come the information that he could then use "to put before the Congress a plan which would amount to a definite solution of this immigration business." [11]

The circumstances of its establishment account for the great hopes that were held out for the report of the Commission and the prestige that ultimately attached to its findings. That prestige was certainly added to when the Commission took more than 3 years to investigate, spent a million dollars, employed a staff of about 300, and published its results in 42 impressive volumes.

A view of the actual circumstances of the compilation and of the nature of the methods used will show however that the Commission's report was neither impartial nor scientific, and that confidence in it was not altogether justified. No public hearings were held, no witnesses cross-examined by the members of the Commission. Largely the study was conducted by experts who each compiled their voluminous reports which were not printed until after the Commission had reached its conclusions. It is doubtful whether the Senators and Congressmen on the Commission ever had the time to examine the voluminous reports in manuscript. It is most likely they were compelled to rest their judgment upon the two-volume summary prepared for it by its body of experts. The final report was "adopted within a half hour of the time when, under the law, it must be filed." [12] The identity of the experts must therefore become of some significance.

The key person was the economist J. W. Jenks. Jenks was chosen because he had served for a decade in a similar capacity in other fact-finding investigations on trusts and other questions. He had already expressed himself on the subject

[10] Theodore Roosevelt Papers, XXV, pp. 86–89.
[11] Theodore Roosevelt Papers, XXXIX, pp. 497–498.
[12] Immigration Commission, Report, I, 49.

of immigration.[13] The other public members were Commissioner of Labor Neill, and William R. Wheeler, active in Republican politics in San Francisco which was then being shaken by the Japanese question. The key secretary, appointed on the recommendation of Senator Lodge, an outspoken restrictionist, was Morton E. Crane, described by the Senator as "absolutely safe and loyal" on the question. Roosevelt was perhaps less concerned with impartiality than with the likelihood of producing a tactically safe report. In any case he warned Jenks, "Don't put in too many professors."[14]

Despite its scientific pretensions therefore the report began by taking for granted the conclusions it aimed to prove—that the new immigration was essentially different from the old and less capable of being Americanized. This assumption is clearly stated at the very start:

"The old and the new immigration differs in many essentials. The former was * * * largely a movement of settlers * * * from the most progressive sections of Europe. * * * They entered practically every line of activity. * * * Many of them * * * became landowners * * * They mingled freely with the native Americans and were quickly assimilated. On the other hand, the new immigration has been largely a movement of unskilled laboring men who have come * * * from the less progressive countries of Europe. * * * They have * * * congregated together in sections apart from native Americans and the older immigrants to such an extent that assimilation has been slow."

This assumption with which the Commission started conditioned the preparation of the whole report and made it certain that the conclusions would confirm the prejudgment. To quote the Commission's own words:

"Consequently the Commission paid but little attention to the foreign-born element of the old immigrant class and directed its efforts almost entirely to * * * the newer immigrants."[15]

These assumptions were directly reflected in the techniques through which the Commission operated. There was no effort to give a time dimension to its data; there was some talk of including a history of immigration, but the study was never prepared. There was therefore no opportunity to trace the development of various problems or to make comparisons between earlier and later conditions. For the same reason, the Commission made no use of any information except that gathered by its own staff at the moment. The enormous store of data in the successive State and Federal censuses were hardly touched. For 50 years State bureaus of labor statistics had been gathering materials on the conditions of industrial labor; the Commission disregarded those entirely. Instead it planned, but never finished, a mammoth census of all industrial workers.[16] It overlooked similarly the wealth of information contained in almost a century of investigations by other Government and private bodies.

Finally, the Commission consistently omitted from its calculations and judgments the whole question of duration of settlement. Time and again it assumed that a group which had lived in the United States for 5 years could be treated on the same footing as one that had lived here for 35. In a few cases, there is enough information to make out the distortions that follow upon that assumption.[17] In most cases, however the Commission did not even possess the data on which a reasoned judgment could be based.

The comments on the Commission's findings that follow will document these general criticisms. Taking for granted the difference between old and new immigrants, the Commission found it unnecessary to prove that the difference existed. In most cases, the individual reports—on industry, crime, nationality

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[13] Note on J. W. Jenks' views on immigration restriction before 1907: As a teacher, Jenks had long argued the necessity of restricting immigration along the lines the Commission would later recommend. The syllabus of his course on Practical Economic Questions (March 31, 1900, pp. 16–17) indicated a consistent restrictionist bias. The editor of the Utica Observer who supported the literacy test later wrote, "This was due to you. I had one or two courses under you at Cornell, where I got the right start on the subject." (E. A. Spears to Jenks, February 19, 1915.) At the very time the investigation was being considered, Jenks opposed a study, as did Congressman Gardner and other restrictionists, arguing that it would involve "the danger of delaying pending legislation that Congress has already recommended" (the literacy bill). See facts About Immigration, Report of the Proceedings of Conferences on Immigration * * * New York, September 24 and December 12, 1906, p. 64.

[14] See Roosevelt to Jenks, Roosevelt Papers, XLI, 338 (March 14, 1907); and Lodge to Roosevelt, July 26, 1908, Selections From the Correspondence of Theodore Roosevelt and Henry Cabot Lodge, 1884–1918, (N. Y., 1925) II, p. 307.

[15] Report, I, pp. 13–15.

[16] Report, XIX, pp. 11–12.

[17] See, for example, the accounts of the ability to learn English, below.

and the like—do not contain the materials for a proper comparison of old and new. But in the summary, the Commission followed the procedure of presenting the introduction and conclusion of each individual report, together with its own interpretive comments that supply the judgment of the inferiority of the new immigrants. Those comments spring from its own a priori assumption, not from its evidence—whatever that was worth; sometimes indeed they run altogether against its evidence.[18]

IV. ANALYSIS OF THE IMMIGRATION COMMISSION REPORT

The substance of the report falls into a number of general categories. Volumes I and II are summary volumes. Volume III, a statistical survey of immigration 1819–1910, and volume XXXIX, an analysis of legal provisions, are noncontroversial. Volume XL, a study of immigration in other countries, is not considered in this memorandum.

The critical material in the other volumes falls into nine general categories:

1. A dictionary of races. Volume V summarized in I, 209 ff.
2. Emigration conditions in Europe (Causes for Emigration). Volume IV, summarized in volume I, 165ff.
3. Economic Effects of Immigration (industry, agriculture, cities). Volumes VI–XXVIII, summarized in volume I, 285 ff.
4. Education and Illiteracy. Volumes XXIX–XXXIII, summarized in volume III, 1 ff.
5. Charity and Immigration. Volumes XXXIV–XXXV, summarized in volume II, 87 ff.
6. Immigration and Crime. Volume XXXVI, summarized in volume II, 159 ff.
7. Immigration and Vice. Volume XXXVII, summarized in volume II, 323 ff.
8. Immigration and Insanity. Volume II, 223 ff. Complete report.
9. Immigration and Bodily Form. Volume XXXVIII, summarized in Volume III, 501 ff.

Each of these categories may most profitably be discussed individually.

1. The dictionary of races

In considering the monumental dictionary of races compiled by the Commission it is necessary to take account of the views of race held by its expert, J. W. Jenks, and by the anthropologist Daniel Folkmar, who was charged with the responsibility of preparing that section of the report. Neither man consciously accepted the notion that the races of men were divided by purely biological distinctions; such a notion could not have been applied to differentiate among the masses of immigrants.[19] But both agreed that there was innate, ineradicable race distinctions that separated groups of men from one another and they agreed as to the general necessity of classifying these races to know which were fittest, most worthy of survival. The immediate problem was to ascertain "whether there may not be certain races that are inferior to other races * * * to discover some test to show whether some may be better fitted for American citizenship than others."[20]

The introduction to the Dictionary of Races explained that while mankind may be divided into five divisions "upon physical or somatogical grounds" the subdivisions of these into particular races is made "largely upon a linguistic basis." According to the dictionary, this linguistic basis of classification was not only practical, in the sense that immigrant inspectors could readily determine the language spoken, but it also had "the sanction of law in immigration statistics and in the census of foreign countries."[21]

Yet, in practice, the dictionary concerned itself with much more than a classification by language. Through it runs a persistent, though not a consistent, tendency to determine race by physical types, to differentiate the old from the new immigrants racially, and to indicate the superiority of the former to the latter.

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[18] See, for example, the discussion of criminality below; and on unionization, below.

[19] "While it is well to find a classification by physical characteristics insisted upon in the able works of Ripley, Deniker, and others, it is manifestly impracticable to use such a classification in immigration work." Report, I, p. 211.

[20] See J. W. Jenks, The Racial Problem in Immigration, National Conference of Charities and Correction, Proceedings, XXXVI (1909), 217; J. W. Jenks, Principles of Politics (N. Y., 1909), 31; Daniel Folkmar, Lecons d'anthropologie philosophique (Paris, 1900), pp. 140 ff.

[21] Report, I, p. 211.

(a) *The biological sources of race.*—Although the dictionary presumably rests upon a linguistic basis, it often considers biological inheritance the critical element in determining racial affiliation. The following examples will illustrate.

Thus the Finns, it is stated, linguistically belong to the Finno-Tartaric race, along with the Hungarians, Turks, and Japanese. But the western Finns who actually came to the United States, though they speak the same language, are descended from "the blondest of Teutons, Swedes * * *."

The Armenians linguistically "are more nearly related to the Aryans of Europe than to their Asiatic neighbors," but "are related physically to the Turks, although they exceed these * * * in the remarkable shortness and height of their heads. The flattening of the back of the head * * * can only be compared to the flattened occiput of the Malay."

Although "English has been the medium of intercourse for generations," the dictionary defines as Irish those descended from people whose "ancestral language was Irish."

Among the Japanese who all speak the same language, "the 'fine' type of the aristocracy, the Japanese ideal, as distinct from the 'coarse' type recognized by students of the Japanese today" is due to "an undoubted white strain." The "fine" type are the descendants of "the Ainos, the earliest inhabitants of Japan * * * one of the most truly Caucasian-like people in appearance."[22]

(b) *The differentiation of old and new immigrants.*—All these racial identifications are confused by the evident desire to demonstrate that the old immigration was different in racial type from the new. Thus Jewish immigrants, though in language and physical characteristics akin to the Germans, are reckoned among the Slavs or eastern Europeans. In the same way it is suggested that a large part of the Irish are "English or Scotch in blood, Teutonic ('Nordic') in type rather than 'Celtic'." The Dutch are the "Englishmen of the mainland."[23]

(c) *The inferiority of the new immigrants.*—Throughout the dictionary and its summary are reflections in scattered phrases and sentences upon the lesser capacity of the new immigrants to be Americanized. The English and the Irish come to the United States "imbued with sympathy for our ideals and our democratic institutions." The "Norse" make "ideal farmers and are often said to Americanize more rapidly than do the other peoples who have a new language to learn." "There is no need to speak of peculiarities in customs and the many important elements which determine the place of the German race in modern civilization." For "the German is too well known in America to necessitate further discussion." By contrast, the Serbo-Croatians have "savage manners," the South Italians "have not attained distinguished success as farmers" and are given to brigandry and poverty; and although "the Poles verge toward the 'northern' race of Europe," being lighter in color than the Russians, "they are more high strung," in this respect resembling the Hungarians. "All these peoples of eastern and southern Europe, including the Greeks and the Italians * * * give character to the immigration of today, as contrasted with the northern Teutonic and Celtic stocks that characterized it up to the eighties. All are different in temperament and civilization from ourselves."[24]

It need hardly be said there is no evidence in the report to support these characterizations. If the material in the dictionary proves anything, it proves that the people of Europe are so thoroughly intermixed, both physically and linguistically, that they cannot be separated into distinct races. Nevertheless, the dictionary significantly establishes a pseudo-scientific basis for the designation of various races. In the balance of the report, the reservations and conditional statements in the dictionary drop away, and the various immigrant groups are treated as fixed races, with well-defined characteristics. Furthermore, throughout, the Commission proceeds on the assumption that these races can be combined into two clear-cut categories, the old and new.[25]

2. Emigration conditions in Europe

The Commission studied the background of immigration by an extensive tour of Europe and through the examination of some of the relevant documents. It was interested in the causes of emigration, the surrounding conditions, the selective factors that operated in it, and the means by which the movement was effected.

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[22] Report, II, pp. 217, 236, 248, 253.
[23] Report, II, pp. 232, 246, 249.
[24] Report, I, pp. 242, V, 47, 54, 66, 79, 82, 83, 104, 120, 130.
[25] See also, below, for a note on more recent race theory.

In this section of its work, too, the Commission deprived itself of the means of making appropriate comparisons between the old and the new immigrants; and then proceeded to make such comparisons to the disadvantage of the new immigrants, without the necessary evidence.

In approaching the subject, the Commission "was not unmindful of the fact that the widespread apprehension in the United States relative to immigration is chiefly due" to the shift in the source of immigration from the northwestern regions to the southeastern regions of Europe. It therefore "paid particular attention" to the latter group.[26] Almost 300 pages of the report deal with the situation in Italy, Russia, Austria-Hungary, Greece. These discussions are, on the whole, fair and factual. But they are preceded by a general survey of some 130 pages which draws less-fair inferential comparisons between the emigration from these places and that from Western Europe. The extensive account of the difficulties of life in the countries of the new immigration and the omission of any such account for the countries of old emigration leaves the impression that the circumstances which caused the one differed from those which caused the other.[27]

In the general survey, the old and the new immigration are said to differ on four main points—permanence of settlement, sex distribution, occupation, and the causes of emigration. In the summary (volume I) these differences are stated even more strongly than in more extended report in volume IV. It will be worth examining each of these differences in turn.

(*a*) *Permanent or transient emigration.*—The matter of permanent or transient emigration is important because it is presumed that those immigrants who come with the intention of staying make better citizens than the "birds of passage" who come merely with the intention of working for a few years, then to depart. The Commission states flatly: "In the matter of stability or permanence of residence in the United States there is a very wide difference between European immigrants of the old and new classes." This conclusion is proved by comparing the number of arrivals in 1907 with the number of departures in 1908 as follows:

	Immigrants admitted, 1907	Aliens departing, 1908
Old immigration (percent)	22.7	8.9
New immigration (percent)	77.3	91.1
Total	100.0	100.0

If, however, the data is taken for particular groups and presented in terms of the relationship of the number of departures to the number of arrivals, the case is by no means so clear. Such groups as the south Italians and the Croatians would still show a high rate of departures; but, on the other hand, such old groups as the English, the Germans, and the Scandinavians would show higher rates of departure than such new groups as the Armenians, the Dalmatians, the Hebrews, and the Portuguese.[28]

Taken even at its face value, this data would not justify a correlation between old immigration and permanence of settlement and between new immigration and transience of settlement. Indeed the Commission had available other kinds of data which pointed to the completely contrary conclusion.[29] Most important of all, the discussion did not take account here of various conditioning factors such as recency of migration. As an agent of the committee pointed out, in another place:

"It is true, no doubt, that most of the recent immigrants hope at first to return some day to their native land, but * * * with the passing years and the growth of inevitable ties, whether domestic, financial, or political, binding the immigrant to his new abode, these hopes decline and finally disappear."[30]

(*b*) *Sex distribution of immigrants.*—The identical criticism applies to the Commission's opinion that the new immigration contains a higher proportion

[26] Report, IV, pp. 12, 19.
[27] For recent accounts of the causes of the old emigration, see below.
[28] The relevant data may be found, Report, I, pp. 179 ff., IV, pp. 39 ff.
[29] Report, VIII, pp. 152–154.
[30] Report, VIII, p. 657.

of single men than the old. Again, that judgment is superficially supported by throwing all the old and all the new immigrants together into two distinct groups; that is the basis of the Commission's table:

Percent of males among immigrants, 1899–1909

Old immigration	58.5
New immigration	73.0

But taking the groups individually we find no such clear-cut demarcation among those with the lowest proportions of males in their total immigration.

Percent of males among immigrants, 1899–1909

Irish	47.2	Scotch	63.6
Hebrew	56.7	Welsh	64.8
Bohemian	56.9	Dutch	65.5
French	58.6	Finnish	65.8
Portuguese	59.0	Syrian	68.2
German	59.4	Polish	69.2
Scandinavian	61.3	Slovak	70.0
English	61.7		

Here, too, the recency of the immigration movement would affect the utility of the data.[31]

(*c*) *Occupations.*—The Commission attempted here to show that the new immigration brought to the United States a significantly larger percentage of unskilled laborers than did the old. Its data did not show this.

For the purposes of this discussion only, therefore, the Hebrews were defined out of the new immigration. That still, however, did not account for the large proportion of servants among the old immigrants. Furthermore, examining the specific groups once more, we discover that the Germans and Scandinavians among the old immigrants boast fewer skilled laborers than such new groups as the Armenians, Bohemians, Hebrews, and Spanish; and the Irish are lower in the list than the south Italians. There is no basis here certainly for the distinction between old and new.[32]

(*d*) *The causes of emigration.*—By confining the discussion of economic pressures on emigration to the countries of Southern and Eastern Europe, the inference is made that the new immigration was more conditioned by such factors than the old. Thus, it is said:

"A large proportion of the emigration from Southern and Eastern Europe may be traced directly to the inability of the peasantry to gain an adequate livelihood in agricultural pursuits." [33]

The statement could as well be applied to the north and west of Europe. Similarly the summary asserts:

"The fragmentary nature of available data relative to wages in many European countries makes a satisfactory comparison with wages in the United States impossible. It is well known, however, that even in England, Germany, France, and other countries of Western Europe wages are below the United States standard, while in Southern and Eastern Europe the difference is very great." [34]

Actually, the original report makes clear, the only evidence the Commission had was on the disparity between wages in the United States and those in France, Germany, and Great Britain. It admitted that there was no data on Southern and Eastern Europe. Yet by assuming that wages in the latter places were necessarily lower than in the former, the data on the old immigration served to prove the inferiority of the new.[35]

3. Economic effects of immigration

This section of the subject absorbed the major portion of the Commission's attention. Fully 20 (VI–XXV) of the 42 volumes are devoted to it. The Commission's aides accumulated an enormous store of data in all parts of the country; they examined 21 industries intensively, and 16 others only slightly less so. Much of the material so gathered is useful. But the conclusions drawn from it

[31] Report, I, p. 171, IV, pp. 23 ff.
[32] Report, I, pp. 172 ff., IV, pp. 26 ff.
[33] Report, I, p. 186, IV, p. 54.
[34] Report, I, p. 186.
[35] Report IV, pp. 54–55.

by the Commission are often unsound and misleading, almost invariably so when it came to comparisons between the old and the new immigrants.

The Commission began with a dubious assertion that: "The older immigrant labor supply was composed principally of persons who had had training and experience abroad in the industries which they entered after their arrival in the United States. * * *. In the case of the more recent immigrations from Southern and Eastern Europe this condition of affairs has been reversed. Before coming to the United States the greater proportion were engaged in farming or unskilled labor and had no experience or training in manufacturing or mining."[36]

By the Commission's own figures, this statement is untrue, less than 20 percent of the old immigrants (1899–1909) were skilled laborers, and the percentage in earlier periods was probably smaller still.[37] The weakness of the claim that there was a correlation between the old immigration and skilled labor and between the new and unskilled has already been shown above (p. 18). Starting with this misapprehension the committee proceeds to draw from its material far-reaching conclusions as to the effect of the new immigration upon: (*a*) Native and old immigration labor, (*b*) unionization, (*c*) industrial methods, (*d*) new industries, and (*e*) unemployment and depressions.

(*a*) *Effects of the new immigration upon native and old immigrant labor.*—The Commission wished to demonstrate the adverse effects of the new immigration upon the existing labor supply. At one point it actually suggested that the new immigration diminished the volume of the old and reduced the native birth rate. But it did not push that suggestion far.

Instead it argued that in many industries the new immigrants pushed out the old labor force. It could not, however, explain this racial displacement by the mere willingness of newcomers to work at lower wages, for the Commission discovered that "it has not appeared in the case of the industries covered by the present investigation that it was usual for employers to engage recent immigrants at wages actually lower than those prevailing at the time of their employment."[38]

The line of argument took another course, therefore. The presence of the newcomers, it was said, produced unsafe working conditions and lowered the conditions of labor to a dgree that "the Americans and older immigrants have considered unsatisfactory."[39] To have proved that would have called for a historical investigation of the industries concerned from which evidence might be drawn for the presumed deterioration of conditions. There was no such study and no such evidence. Indeed, this section seems to have been inserted into the summary arbitrarily, for it seems not to correspond with any section of the extended report itself.[40]

On the other hand the report does contain material, not used by the Commission, that throws a different light upon the process of displacement.

"The chief reason for the employment of immigrants has been the impossibility of securing other labor to supply the demand caused by the expansion of the industry. Without the immigrant labor supply, the development of the cotton-goods industry to its present status in New England and other North Atlantic States could not have taken place."[41]

All these changes were part of the complex development of the American economy. The rapid industrial expansion of the half century before the investigation had been accompanied by swift technological change which mechanized many aspects of production and thereby eliminated the skill of the old craftsmen. That accounts for the displacement. But the Commission also found that those displaced, in large measure, moved upward to better-paying jobs available in the rapid expansion of the economy. To the extent that immigrants contributed to that expansion they actually helped to lift the condition of the laborers they found already there.

In any case, no connection was established between the specific qualities of the new immigrants, and the whole process of displacement. Indeed the report itself pointed out that the shifts in the labor force went back to early in the nineteenth century and had once involved such old groups as the Irish. That

[36] Report I, p. 494.
[37] Report I, p. 174.
[38] Report I, p. 494.
[39] Report I, p. 561.
[40] Compare with Report, XIX.
[41] Report X, p. 126.

might have suggested to the Commission, but unfortunately did not, that what was involved was not some peculiarity of the immigrants from Southern and Eastern Europe, but rather a general factor characteristic of all immigrants, and varying with the recency of the group.

(*b*) *Unionization.*—The Commission makes the blanket accusation that, "The extensive employment of Southern and Eastern European immigrants in manufacturing and mining has in many places resulted in the weakening of labor organizations or in their complete disruption." [42] This statement is made without a shred of evidence. The Commission did not include in its report any data on union membership, either for the country as a whole or for specific industries or for specific unions. It had no way of knowing what the trend of union membership was, or of what the relationship of immigration was to that trend.

The accusation quoted above derives not from the evidence but from the Commission's assumption as to the nature of the new immigration: "The members of the larger number of races of recent entrance to the mines, mills, and factories as a rule have been tractable and easily managed. This quality seems to be a temperamental one acquired through present or past conditions of life in their native lands." [43]

The lengths to which the Commission was willing to go to maintain views of the effects of immigration on unions in accord with its prejudices may be seen by comparing the account of the labor organizations in the cotton industry as it appears in the extended report with the same account summarized in the summary.

Speaking of the cotton-goods industry the original report points out that unions are confined to the skilled branches of the trade while the immigrants are largely unskilled. The latter occupations "are not organized, and the coming of the foreigner there does not concern the textile unions." Since the organized branches of the trade are "protected, by the long time required to attain proficiency, from any sudden or immediate competition of unorganized foreigners, these unions are not strongly opposed to the immigrants gradually working into their trades." But "they manifest little interest in the immigrant employees until they have advanced to the occupations controlled by the labor organizations." Though the mass of laborers thus remain outside the union, the report continues, "all the operatives are strongly union in their sympathies and in the case of labor troubles have stood with the union people." [44]

How does the summary summarize this report? Only an extended quotation will show the extent of the distortion:

"The more recent immigrant employees from Southern and Eastern Europe and Asia, however, have been a constant menace to the labor organizations and have been directly and indirectly instrumental in weakening the unions and threatening their disruption. * * * The recent immigrants have also been reluctant to identify themselves with the unions." [45]

This dictum inserted into the summary in direct contradiction to the evidence, while the conclusions of the original report are omitted, is evidence of the total unreliability of the Commission's findings on the question of unionization and immigration.

(*c*) *Industrial methods.*—The Commission found that among the effects of employing the new immigrants in industry was an increase in the number of accidents.[46] This question has already been treated above (p. 20). In addition reference should be made to the careful examination of the Commission's conclusions on the subject by Dr. I. A. Hourwich.[47] Dr. Hourwich showed that the Commission merely accepted the mine-operators' point of view, which was to ascribe all accidents to employee negligence rather than to deficiencies in equipment. Reconstructing the history of mine accidents, Dr. Hourwich showed that their incidence varied with the output of industry rather than with the character of the labor force; and a comparison of mines in Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Alabama, which employed very few immigrants, with those of Pennsylvania where the bulk of the miners were immigrants exposed clearly the falsity of the Commission's views. The Commission, eager to reach its own conclusions, considered none of these types of evidence.

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[42] Report I, p. 530.
[43] Report I, p. 500.
[44] Report X, pp. 123, 124.
[45] Report I, p. 537.
[46] Report I, pp. 538 ff., VI, pp. 209 ff.
[47] Isaac A. Hourwich, Immigration and Labor (2d edition, New York, 1922) pp. 458 ff.

The conclusions of the Commission also contain numerous miscellaneous statements as to the deterioration of the conditions of labor and of wages as the results of immigration. In this connection, it is only necessary to emphasize again the fact that the Commission had no evidence whatsoever to support these contentions. Such evidence could only have come by a comparative historical study which would actually trace the development of labor conditions over a substantial period. The Commission made no such study. The hypothetical and speculative nature of its conclusions may be seen in the following example. Acknowledging that there was no evidence that immigrants actually worked at lower wages, the Commission went on to say:

"It is hardly open to doubt, however, that the availability of the large supply of recent immigrant labor prevented the increase in wages which otherwise would have resulted during recent years from the increased demand for labor."[48]

(*d*) *New industries.*—The Commission drew an unfavorable comparison between the old and the new immigration. The coming of the latter "has not resulted in the establishment of new industries of any importance." But, "by way of contrast, it will be recalled that a large proportion of the earlier immigrant laborers were originally induced to come to this country to contribute their skill and experience toward the establishment of new industries, such as mining and textile, glass, and iron and steel manufacturing."[49] This assertion springs from the unreal fantasy to which the Commission clung, that the old immigration was largely made up of skilled artisans. (See above, p. 18.) It disregards also the obvious difference between the industrial conditions in the United States in 1840 and 1900. It was indeed easier to create new industries at the earlier date; but that reflected the undeveloped economy of the country rather than the quality of the immigration.[50]

(*e*) *Unemployment and depressions.*—The conclusions of the report also contain a number of statements implying a relationship between the new immigration and unemployment and depressions.[51] These are nowhere proven. In any case, as elsewhere, the Commission found it unnecessary to show that the old immigration had stood in a different relationship; it took that for granted.

(*f*) *Agriculture.*—It was the same with the report on the conditions of immigrants in agriculture. The body of that report consisted of a fairly sympathetic survey of many communities of recent immigrants. But the summary of the report was preceded by an introduction, not particularly related to the report itself, which drew an invidious distinction between the old and new immigrants with regard to the likelihood of their entry into agriculture.[52] The comments there made disregarded two critical factors. First, the number of farmers increased with the duration of a group's life in the United States; this was revealed quite clearly in the Commission's data which showed that for all groups there was a greater percentage of farmers among the second than among the first generation.[53] Furthermore, the context of the American economy had changed after 1890. With industrialization there came a general growth of urban at the expense of rural population; even the sons of native farmers were being drawn to the city. Whatever difference existed between the old and the new immigrants, was not the product of their inherent characteristics but of the conditions they found and the length of time they had lived in the United States.

4. Education and literacy.

The current agitation of the literacy test gave particular importance to the Commission's discussion of the problems of literacy and education, and to its attempt to establish a difference, in this regard, between the old and the new immigration.

The background was established in the account of emigration conditions in Europe, which clearly indicated a substantial difference in the rate of illiteracy between the newcomers to the United States from the countries of old immigration. The original report examined the various reasons for the high rate of illiteracy in Southern and Eastern Europe and concluded, "But probably the most apparent cause of illiteracy in Europe, as elsewhere, is poverty. The economic status of a people has a very decided effect upon the literacy rate."

[48] Report I, p. 540.
[49] Report I, p. 541.
[50] For the later contributions of new immigrants, see below.
[51] Report I, p. 39.
[52] Report I, p. 547 ff.
[53] Report I, p. 799 ff.

It went on to predict a steady improvement in this regard.[54] The summary omitted this discussion and suggested strongly that the high rate of illiteracy among the new immigrants was due to "inherent racial tendencies."[55]

The Commission also found it possible to demonstrate that the new immigrants in the United States were less literate than the old. This data is nowhere brought systematically together, but is scattered through the reports on industries and agriculture. It is therefore difficult to analyze in detail. In general, however, it may be said, that the factor of duration of settlement is almost everywhere disregarded in arriving at the conclusion that "a much higher degree of illiteracy prevails among the immigrants of recent years form Southern and Eastern Europe than among those of old immigration from Great Britain and Northern Europe.[56] The importance of the factor of duration of settlement may be gathered from the data on the literacy of employees in clothing manufacture, which do take account of it:

Percentage of foreign-born employees who speak English by years in the United States

Years in the United States:	Percent
Under 5	38.8
5 to 9	66.5
10 or over	[1] 83.0

[1] Report XI, p. 363.

The failure of the Commission to reckon with this factor invalidates its whole comparison.

Its difficulties with the more general problems of education were even more impressive. The Commission had apparently thought it would be possible to measure the capacity of the old and new immigrants to be schooled. Discussing the question Jenks had pointed out:

"Any one who has observed, even in a small way, the different classes of people that come into this country, knows that some are very much inclined toward making the best possible use of our schools, while others make no attempt whatever to get in touch with our educational system."[57]

The Commission planned to make such measurements through an elaborate investigation of more than 2,000,000 school children to discover which races were most likely to be retarded.

Although four volumes of tables came forth from this investigation, it proved nothing. To begin with, the data was defective for it was based upon questionnaires sent to teachers who did not understand them.

"In a considerable proportion of cases the teachers have assigned a cause of retardation for pupils who are the normal age or even younger than the normal age for the grade."[58]

The Commission nevertheless used the bulk of material gathered, in its elaborate tables on retardation, the very concept which the teachers did not understand.

The volumes of data thus reflect not the care and accuracy of the survey, but rather, the fact that the Commission was not able to shape its material to the conclusions it wished.

There is no basis in the data for dividing the old from the new immigrants on the performance of their children in schools. But the information in the tables does show a wide variation from place to place in the achievements of children within any given group. Thus 55 percent of the German children in St. Louis are retarded, but only 21.2 percent in Scranton; similarly the English show 56.2 percent in St. Louis, 19.1 percent in Scranton, and 13.9 percent in Worcester.[59]

That might suggest that the quality of schools and the social environment was a more significant variable than parentage. But not to the Commission.

So too, through the tables there runs a good deal of material that would emphasize the importance of recency of settlement, so much so, that the original report pointed out:

"Length of residence in the United States has an important bearing on progress of pupils. It can hardly be expected that children of immigrants who have been in the United States only a few months or even years can make the same

[54] Report IV, pp. 34, 35.
[55] Report I, p. 176.
[56] Report I, p. 443.
[57] Jenks, The Racial Problem in Immigration, loc. cit., p. 219.
[58] Report II, p. 43.
[59] Report XXXIII, pp. 218, 386, 564.

progress as children of those who have been here long enough to become more or less adjusted to their new surroundings.[60]

This comment seemed not worthy of inclusion in the summary.[61]

5. *Charity and immigration*

The data on pauperism, dependence, and admissions to institutions do not supply the basis for any generalizations as to meaningful differences between the old and new immigration, except insofar as the old were more subject to alcoholism than the new.[62]

6. *Immigration and crime*

Among the Commission's conclusions were some striking comments on the relationship of criminality to immigration. "Statistics show," it said, "that the proportion of convictions for crimes according to the population is greater among the foreign-born than among the native-born." Furthermore, the conclusions asserted, "The proportion of the more serious crimes of homicide, blackmail, and robbery, as well as the least serious offenses is greater among the foreign-born."[63] These statements followed smoothly from the conceptions of racial propensities included in the Dictionary of Races. To support them with statistical evidence was more difficult, however.

What did statistics show? When the Commission turned to the only existing body of information, the Census Report on Prisoners, it discovered a disconcerting situation. These data, gathered by a body which did not have to prove any conclusions, showed that "immigration has not increased the volume of crime to a distinguishable extent, if at all," that the percentage of immigrants among prisoners had actually fallen between 1890 and 1904, and that native Americans "exhibited in general a tendency to commit more serious crimes than did the immigrant."[64]

Obviously, such statistics would not do. The Commission proceeded to gather its own. For its study, the Commission accumulated a very large number of cases, fully 1,179,677, were extracted from court records over a period of 7 years. These were derived from relatively few sources. Of them, some 1,130,000 were drawn from New York and Chicago, the two cities with the largest number of foreign born in the United States, and 30,000 more came from Massachusetts, also a State of high immigrant density. (The remainder were the 12,000 aliens in Federal institutions.) Apparently it was unnecessary to examine the experience of such places as Memphis, San Francisco, and Atlanta.[65]

It must be pointed out, however, that no inferences drawn from such data could possibly support the sweeping generalizations of the conclusions. For such a sample would hardly be illuminating for the country as a whole or for the place of the immigrant in the national crime problem. At most it could throw light on the peculiar problems of the two places from which the bulk of the cases were taken.

The Commission does not however use the material in that way; if it had, its conclusions could not stand. It does not, for instance, examine the frequency of crime relative to the number of the foreign-born and native groups. To attempt such a correlation it felt would not be feasible. Instead data were organized to show how immigration changed the character of crime in the United States. Its evidence, the Commission imagined, showed that immigration had increased—

"The commission of offenses of personal violence (such as abduction and kidnaping, assault, homicide, and rape) and of that large class of violations of the law known as offenses against public policy (which include disorderly conduct, drunkenness, vagrancy, the violation of corporate ordinances, and many offenses incident to city life) * * * (as well as) offenses against chastity, especially those connected with prostitution."[67]

It must be emphasized again that even if the Commission had shown that, it would still not have supported its general conclusions that the immigrants had a higher proportion of crimes according to population than did the natives.

But in any case, the Commission did not show such a result followed upon

[60] Report XXIX, p. 91.
[61] Report II, p. 41.
[62] Report I, pp. 34, 35.
[63] Report I, p. 33.
[64] Report XXXVI, I, pp. 4, 5.
[65] Report XXXVI, p. 10.
[67] Report II, p. 164.

immigration. It had indeed no basis at all for comparison with earlier periods. What it did was quite different. For each group of immigrants and for the native Americans it worked out a pattern of the distribution of various types of crimes. Within each group it compared the incidence of each specific type of crime with the total number of crimes in that group. When therefore it said that the foreign-born were more prone than the natives to crimes of personal violence, it did not mean that the foreign-born committed more such crimes than the natives either absolutely or relative to their percentage in the total population. It meant only that such crimes accounted for a larger part of the total criminality of the group.

One illustration will suffice to show the meaning of this difference. The New York County and Supreme courts, 1907 and 1908, showed the following cases of assault, by nativity:

Country of birth:	*Number*	Country of birth:	*Number*
United States	630	Ireland	38
Italy	342	Canada	15
Russia	73	Poland	14
Austria-Hungary	62	England	[1] 8
Germany	47		

[1] Report XXXVI, pp. 348–351.

This data is presented by the Commission in a table headed "Relative frequency" of such offenses, as follows:

Country of birth:	*Percent of total*
Italy	28.9
Austria-Hungary	15.0
Poland	14.6
Ireland	13.7
Canada	12.1
Russia	11.3
Germany	9.1
United States	8.7
England	[1] 5.0

[1] Report II, p. 197.

The table last cited can be understood only when one remembers that "percent of total" means percent of crimes of this category of the total number of crimes by the nativity group concerned. In almost all such cases the low position of natives of the United States seems due to the fact that the total number of crimes of violence they commit is much larger than for other groups. As the Commission presented these data, they were never very meaningful, often misleading, and they in no case supported its general contentions.[68]

7. Immigration and vice

The Commission's report on the "white slave traffic" is moderate in tone and factual in content.[69] It is on the whole free of the conjectural elements that mar so much of the rest of the report. Perhaps the only objection to it is the failure adequately to place the problem in its proper context. Dealing exclusively with the immigrants, it gives the impression, unintentionally, that prostitution was largely a product of the foreign born, although fragmentary data in the report indicate they played only a minor role in the American problem.[70]

8. Immigration and insanity

The Commission did not make a first-hand investigation of this subject. Its data is drawn from the census and other sources. While the available information seemed to indicate that the foreign-born supplied more than their share of the insane, it also indicated that it was the old, rather than the new, immigration that was chiefly responsible. The Irish, the Germans, and the Scandinavians showed the greatest relative responsibility, or, as the report put it:

"It appears that insanity is relatively more prevalent among the foreign-born than among the native-born, and relatively more prevalent among certain immigrant races and nationalities than among others. In general the nation-

[68] The details can be adequately traced only in the full Report XXXVI.
[69] Report XXXVII.
[70] Report II, p. 251.

alities furthest advanced in civilization show, in the United States, a higher proportion of insane than do the more backward races." [71]

9. Changes in bodily form among the descendants of immigrants

The Commission considered within the scope of its inquiry the whole problem of the physical characteristics of the immigrants. To the Dictionary of Races, which rested upon information gathered from other sources, it wished to join its own findings on the physical characteristics of immigrants and their descendants. This was an important question because it was theretofore assumed that such characteristics of a race as bodily form were fixed and permanent. It was not imagined that they would change in the course of immigration; and if they did not, that might conspicuously affect the assimilation of the immigrants.

Prof. Franz Boas, of Columbia University, the distinguished anthropologist charged with responsibility for the study, discovered surprising results however. It appeared that:

"The head form, which has always been considered one of the most stable and permanent characteristics of human races, undergoes far-reaching changes due to the transfer of the people from European to American soil * * * This fact shows * * * that not even those characteristics of a race which have proved to be most permanent in their old home remain the same under the new surroundings; and we are compelled to conclude that when these features of the body change, the whole bodily and mental make-up of the immigrants may change * * * All the evidence is now in favor of a great plasticity of human types." [72]

10. Summary Evaluation of the Commission's Findings.

The Commission was certainly surprised with these results. It perforce quoted them—but cautiously, and with the reservation that a good deal more study was needed before they could be accepted. [73] The Commission certainly did not allow these findings to influence the materials in the Dictionary of Races or to stand in the way of its allusion to the fixed nature of the temperaments of the races it discussed through the body of the report.

In summary, it may be said, the Commission did not use the opportunity afforded it, to make the open objective study of the problem it might have. It began with preconceived ideas as to the difference between the old and the new immigration. It did not have the evidence to substantiate that assumption. But it devotes much of its efforts to bending what evidence it could find to that end. Its conclusions are largely invalidated by those distortions and offered an unsound basis for the legislation that followed.

V. THE LAUGHLIN REPORT

Dr. Harry Laughlin's Analysis of America's Modern Melting Pot was designed to correct the inability of the Dillingham Commission report to demonstrate conclusively the social inferiority of the "new" immigrants. Laughlin's report originates in a hearing of the House Immigration Committee (April 16, 17, 1920) which asked him to study the relations of biology to immigration particularly as they bore on the problems of social degeneracy. [74]

Laughlin's report was presented to the committee in November 1922. The Honorable Albert Johnson, chairman of the committee, examined the report and certified: "I have examined Dr. Laughlin's data and charts and find that they are both biologically and statistically thorough, and apparently sound." [75] Whatever the chairman's competence to pass upon these matters, he was satisfied that the investigation had proved the inferiority of the new immigrants. The opinions that were before long to be reflected in legislation were summarized by Dr. Laughlin:

"The outstanding conclusion is that, making all logical allowances for environmental conditions, which may be unfavorable to the immigrant, the recent immigrants as a whole, present a higher percentage of inborn socially inadequate qualities than do the older stocks."

This conclusion was accompanied by the assurance that it was based upon "data and conditions" not "sentiment or previous attitude" [76]

[71] Report II, p. 251.
[72] Report II, pp. 505, 506.
[73] Report I, p. 44.
[74] Laughlin Report, p. 731.
[75] Laughlin Report, p. 731.
[76] Laughlin Report, p. 755.

Before advancing to an examination of those data, it will however, be worth making note of Dr. Laughlin's own sentiments as he explicitly stated them to the committee:

"We in this country have been so imbued with the idea of democracy, or the equality of all men, that we have left out of consideration the matter of blood or natural inborn hereditary mental and moral differences. No man who breeds pedigreed plants and animals can afford to neglect this thing." [77]

Dr. Laughlin thus purported to be studying the "natural inborn hereditary" tendencies of the new immigrants to the significant social disorders. His method was to examine the distribution of various national stocks in 445 State and Federal institutions in 1921.

Certain criticisms of this procedure immediately suggest themselves. Most important is the fact that commitments to public institutions do not measure the hereditary tendencies Dr. Laughlin presumes to be measuring. In the case of insanity, for instance, this is a most inadequate standard, since the availability of facilities in various sections varies greatly, as does the willingness of certain social, economic, and ethnic groups to make use of those facilities in preference to private institutions or to home care. All the generalization based on such data must be dubious.

Furthermore Laughlin's sample was faulty and he treated his material crudely, failing to make corrections for occupational, age or sex distribution. His critical statistical device, "the quota fulfillment plan of analysis" was based upon a comparison of committal records of 1921 with the distribution of population in 1910, although the census data of 1920 was available to him. By this means he certainly magnified the relative number of the immigrants among the socially inadequate.

But all these methodological faults, grave as they are, shrink in importance as compares with a more basic criticism. The data, faulty as they are, simply do not say what Laughlin says they say. His conclusions can find support, of a sort, only by throwing together all forms of inadequacy in a few gross, and arbitrary divisions as follows:

	Percent of quota fulfillment
Native white, native parentage	84.33
Native white, foreign parentage	109.40
Native white, mixed parentage	116.65
Northwestern Europe immigrants	130.42
Southeastern Europe immigrants	[1] 143.24

[1] Laughlin Report, p. 753.

But Laughlin's own materials do not support his conclusions if the various national groups are treated separately, whether for inadequacy as a whole, or for particular types of inadequacy. In the chart which follows the various nationalities are ranked according to their order in Laughlin's rating of quota fulfillment for each category and for the total. The ranking is in the order of descending desirability, that is, those at the top are most desirable, those at the bottom least.

FEEBLEMINDEDNESS

1. Ireland
2. Switzerland
3. All Asia
4. Greece
5. France
6. Germany
7. Scandinavia
8. Austria-Hungary
9. Canada
10. Rumania
11. Italy
12. Great Britain
13. Turkey
14. Russia and Poland
15. Bulgaria
16. United States, native parents
17. United States, foreign parents
18. United States, mixed parents
19. Australia
20. Serbia

[77] Laughlin Report, p. 738.

INSANITY

1. Japan
2. Switzerland
3. United States, native parents
4. Rumania
5. United States, mixed parents
6. United States, foreign parents
7. Canada
8. All Asia
9. Austria-Hungary
10. Great Britain
11. Italy
12. France
13. Greece
14. Germany
15. Scandinavia
16. Turkey
17. Russia and Poland
18. Bulgaria
19. Ireland
20. Serbia

CRIME

1. Switzerland
2. Ireland
3. Germany
4. Scandinavia
5. Great Britain
6. Canada
7. Austria-Hungary
8. United States, native parents
9. United States, foreign parents
10. United States, mixed parents
11. France
12. Russia-Poland
13. Rumania
14. Japan
15. Italy
16. Turkey
17. All Asia
18. Greece
19. Bulgaria
20. Serbia

EPILEPSY

1. Scandinavia
2. France
3. Switzerland
4. All Asia
5. Greece
6. Austria-Hungary
7. Germany
8. Canada
9. Italy
10. United States, native parents
11. Turkey (European)
12. Ireland
13. Russia-Poland
14. Rumania
15. Great Britain
16. United States, foreign parents
17. United States, mixed parents

TUBERCULOSIS

1. Switzerland
2. Germany
3. Austria-Hungary
4. Great Britain
5. United States, native parents
6. Canada
7. United States, mixed parents
8. United States, foreign parents
9. Italy
10. Ireland
11. All Asia
12. Russia-Poland
13. Scandinavia
14. Greece

DEPENDENCY

1. Austria-Hungary
2. Italy
3. All Asia
4. Russia-Poland
5. Scandinavia
6. United States, mixed parents
7. United States, foreign parents
8. United States, native parents
9. Switzerland
10. Germany
11. Greece
12. Canada
13. Great Britain
14. France
15. Turkey
16. Ireland

ALL TYPES OF SOCIAL INADEQUACY

1. Switzerland
2. Japan
3. United States, native parents
4. Austria-Hungary
5. Canada
6. Rumania
7. Germany
8. United States, foreign parents
9. Great Britain
10. United States, mixed parents
11. Scandinavia
12. France
13. All Asia
14. Italy
15. Russia-Poland
16. Greece
17. Turkey
18. Ireland
19. Bulgaria
20. Serbia [78]

[78] Not all Laughlin's entries are included, and Negroes are excluded so that "Native" refers to native white.

A candid examination of these rankings will reveal that, whatever their intrinsic value, they do not show any consistent order of superiority or inferiority among the various nations. Furthermore they certainly do not show that the new nationalities can, in any sense conceivably be said to rank below the old nationalities. All the inferences of the Laughlin report must therefore be categorically rejected.

VI. SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF AMERICAN ETHNIC GROUPS

The studies that have here been examined have a historical interest insofar as they contributed to the adoption of the national-origins quota system which is still a part of American immigration legislation. By giving governmental and quasi-scientific validation to existing prejudices against the new immigrants, they helped to justify the discriminations against them in the laws of 1921 and 1924.

But these studies no longer have the slightest scientific value. In the last quarter century new investigations by scientists, detached from the pressure of the immediate problems of immigration, have uncovered a good deal of information relevant to the matters touched on in the Dillingham and the Laughlin reports. They have dealt more adequately with the problems of race, with the course of immigration through American history, with the nature of the economic and social adjustments of immigrants, and with the extent to which intelligence, education, crime, insanity, and other social disorders vary among diverse groups of our population. Large areas of this subject, of course, still remain open for investigation; and at some places the evidence is inconclusive. But enough data is available to give a fresh orientation to the ideas within which the future of immigration will be considered. Reexamination of American immigration policy should involve not only an understanding of the fallacies upon which the old laws rest, but also a comprehension of the new view upon which forward-looking legislation might be based. In the following account a very brief summary will be given of the generally accepted conclusions bearing upon the place of immigrants in American life.

1. The nature of race

A useful summary of the points upon which there is a general consensus of opinion was prepared for UNESCO in a statement on race by a group of distinguished biologists, psychologists, and social scientists in 1950. Its main points furnish a strategic beginning for this discussion. These follow.[79]

Mankind is essentially one, descended from the same common stock. The species is divided into a number of populations or races which differ among each other in the frequency of one or more genes, which determine the hereditary concentration of physical traits. Those traits are not fixed, but may appear, fluctuate, and disappear in the course of time. It is presently possible to distinguish three such races, the Mongoloid, the Negroid and the Caucasoid, but no subgroups within them can be meaningfully described in physical terms. National, religious, geographic, linguistic, and cultural groups do not coincide with race and the cultural and social traits of such groups have no genetic connection with racial traits. There is no evidence of any inborn differences of temperament, personality, character, or intelligence among races.[80]

If this statement be accepted, then the only meaningful terms in which one can compare the social and cultural traits of groups is in terms of the ethnic group, which preserves its continuity to the extent that its culture passes from generation to generation through a common social environment. The inheritance of an ethnic group consists not of its biological traits but of its culture.[81]

2. Immigration and the ethnic groups in American life

Ethnic groups have played a particularly important role in American history. In the United States, the Government has always left large areas of social action free for the activities of voluntary organizations. Without any compulsion toward uniformity, individuals have been free to associate with one another

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[79] A convenient version is in Ashley Montagu, Statement on Race (New York, [1951]).

[80] The following works contain useful discussions of these points: Anthony Barnett, The Human Species (New York, 1950); William C. Boyd, Genetics and the Races of Man (Boston, 1950) C. S. Coon, S. M. Garn, and J. B. Birdsell, Races (Springfield, 1950).

[81] The Boas report on bodily forms which made this point (above), has not been significantly criticized since and has been supported by other more recent data. See Franz Boas, Race, Language, and Culture (New York, 1940), pp. 28 ff., 60 ff. M. S. Goldstein, Demographic and Bodily Changes in Descendants of Mexican Immigrants (Austin, 1943), p. 16.

in religious, social, philanthropic, cultural, and economic organizations through which they often preserve the distinctive differences that separate them from other Americans. Those differences may originate in any one of a number of factors; religion, for instance, is the basis of identification among such groups as the Mormons or Quakers. But one of the most important means through which these differences appear is through immigration which brings to this country men of diverse cultural antecedents.

Immigration has therefore always played a central role in the formation of American culture. From the first settlements to our own times, this process has been involved with the shaping of the distinctive institutions under which we live.

The most important contributions to the understanding of this process in recent years have been those which emphasized its continuity, demonstrating that the kinds of people who arrived in the seventeenth century were not substantially different from those who came in the eighteenth or in the nineteenth or in the twentieth. Although each of the ethnic groups which came to the New World had its distinctive cultural and social life, the process that brought them all was the same. Their social origins and their motives were always very much alike.

In the face of these contributions it is no longer possible to speak of meaningful distinctions between settlers and immigrants or between old and new immigrants. Englishmen, Germans, Italians, and Poles all spoke different languages, had different customs, and were accustomed to different forms of behavior. But the kinds of Englishmen who came to the United States in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were very much the same as the kinds of Irish, Germans, and Scandinavians who came in the middle of the nineteenth, and these in turn were very much like the Italians, Jews, and Poles who came later.[82]

Very largely all these immigrants were people displaced by economic changes in the structure of modern agriculture and industry. With the growth of population and with the mechanization of industry and agriculture, large numbers of artisans found their handicrafts useless and even larger numbers of peasants found no place for themselves on the land. These were the people to whom opportunity beconed in the New World. The generating economic changes began in England and spread to the east; that accounts for the difference in the era at which various peoples began to migrate. But the process was one and continuous.[83]

In discussing the process of adjustment to life in the United States, it is therefore necessary to take account of both similarities and differences among the groups involved. To some extent, the qualities of the cultural heritage seem to influence the course of that adjustment. But more important seem to be the nature of the opportunities open to the immigrant and the length of time his adjustment has taken. In no case does the line between old and new seem significant.

3. The economic adjustment

Properly or not, discussion of the problems of immigration has often focused on the nature of the effects upon the economy. The Immigration Commission devoted the bulk of its labors to this subject; and for some Americans this has been the decisive aspect of the question. Scholarly studies have thrown considerable light upon the effects of immigration on depressions, on wages, on occupational stratification and mobility, and on economic innovations.

(a) Immigration and depressions.—It was once feared that immigration which added new hands to the labor supply might contribute to the severity of depressions. The evidence of the depression that followed upon the panic of 1929, points in the other direction. In the early 1930's the volume of unemployment remained high and the depression intense despite the complete curtailment of immigration. These phenomena depended upon the more general fluctuations of the business cycle rather than upon a single factor, immigration.

Furthermore studies of the period of free migration down to 1924 have indicated the likelihood that immigration may actually have eased the effects of depression. The volume of immigration then seemed to rise sharply during periods of prosperity and to sink rapidly in periods of depression. This lent fluidity to the labor supply, enabling it to expand when more hands were needed

[82] See the following works: Abbot E. Smith, Colonists in Bondage (Chapel Hill, 1947); M. L. Hansen, Atlantic Migration (Cambridge, 1941).

[83] See also Oscar Handlin, The Uprooted (Boston, 1951).

and to contract when they were not.[84] The conclusion is clear that immigration is not likely in this respect to be a danger in the future.

(*b*) *Immigration and wages.*—Through much of the period of free immigration there was fear its effects would be to drive wages down. There were some grounds for this fear. As a theoretical proposition it seems likely that the effect of adding to the supply of labor would be to drive down its cost. Furthermore, through much of the period of free immigration, the average real wages of labor, particularly of unskilled labor, fell or were stationary.[85]

If the question is examined more closely, however, the relationship of immigration to labor will assume another appearance. To use an over-all average of labor, particularly of unskilled labor will not tell us much about the effects of immigration on the earlier labor force, because the immigrants themselves constituted a large part of the sample. Eliminating the unskilled labor of the immigrants themselves, it seems the more skilled labor of the natives was not adversely affected. Furthermore, the coming of the immigrants by broadening the range of opportunities at the top of the occupational ladder seems actually to have lifted the older labor force to higher job levels and thus to have increased their income. As long as the whole economy was expansive, therefore immigration probably raised rather than lowered the wage level of the existing labor force.[86]

In the more recent past, with wages largely determined by collective bargaining, the decisive element in the determination of wage rates seems to have been the state of labor organization in any given industry. When the opportunity has ben afforded them, immigrants have shown their readiness to join unions in defense of their interests as workers.[87] Given the continued capacity of our economy to expend in the future, a moderate amount of immigration seems no threat either to wage rates or to the unions.

(*c*) *Immigration and occupational stratification.*—Although economic opportunities in American society are open to all, some groups are more likely than others to take advantage of them. The determining factors are complex and will only be treated here in their relationship to immigration.

Most immigrants entered the American economy at the lowest levels, primarily as unskilled laborers. This was the logical outcome of the situation of peasants coming without capital to an industrial society. The lack of skill and the initial role as laborers was characteristic of the old immigrants as of the new, of the Irish and Germans, as of the Italians and Poles, although the proportions differed somewhat.[88] There were occasional exceptions, of course, as among the British immigrants of the last quarter of the nineteenth century and among the Jews a little later.[89]

It seems clear that the occupational level of all such groups rises with the passage of time, although no general study has as yet examined with sufficient care the means through which that rise occurs or the factors which affect its rate. The various groups vary in their experience; and those variations no doubt reflect differences in cultural background as well as in the availability of opportunities and the length of settlement.

That the factor last named may be crucial is shown by the findings in a survey of Newburyport, Mass. Using indices of their own contriving, the authors of

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[84] Harry Jerome, Migration and Business Cycles (New York, 1926); Hourwich, Immigration and Labor, pp. 114 ff.

[85] See on these points, Julius Isaac, Economics of Migration (New York, 1947), pp. 197 ff.; also G. A. Kleene, Profits and Wages (New York, 1916), 119 ff.

[86] See, above; Hourwich, Immigration and Labor, pp. 13 ff.; Isaac, Economics of Migration, p. 230.

[87] Herman Feldman, Racial Factors in American Industry (New York, 1931), pp. 219 ff.

[88] See Oscar Handlin, Boston's Immigrants (Cambridge, 1941), pp. 59 ff.; Robert Ernst, Immigrant Life in New York City (New York, 1949), pp. 61, 219.

[89] See E. E. Cohen, "Economic Status and Occupational Structure," American Jewish Yearbook, (Long Island, 1950), pp. 53 ff. R. T. Berthoff, British Immigrants in Industrial America (dissertation in Harvard Archives, 1952).

that study traced the occupational status of eight ethnic groups over nine decades as follows: [90]

Group	1850	1864	1873	1883	1893	1903	1913	1923	1933
Irish	1.62	1.76	1.74	1.76	1.84	1.94	2.14	2.31	2.52
French-Canadian					1.95	2.10	2.14	2.23	2.24
Jews							3.10	3.22	3.32
Italians							2.32	2.29	2.28
Armenians							2.46	2.51	2.56
Greeks								2.53	2.34
Poles								1.88	1.97
Russians									1.95

[90] W. L. Warner and Leo Srole, Social Systems of American Ethnic Groups (New Haven, 1945), p. 60.

The striking features of these findings are: the extent to which almost all groups seem to raise their status in time, the fact that relative position tends to vary with duration of settlement, and the fact that some new immigrants (Armenians, Jews) do better than the old Irish. Scattered data on home ownership and savings accounts would seem in general to bear out the same conclusions.

(d) Innovations and immigration.—Finally the possibility must not be overlooked that among any group of immigrants or their children there may be the occasional individual who by his gifts as an outsider may become one of the long list of innovators, inventors, or entrepreneurs, who have helped to stimulate American industry in the past. No test will reveal which particular group will in the future bring along a Michael Pupin, a Conrad Huber, an Ottmar Mergenthaler, or a Giuseepe Bellanca.[91]

a long list of such names.

To sum up, the possible adverse economic effects of immigration seem slight, the possible gains both for Americans and newcomers seem considerable. All the groups which have hitherto immigrated have had some economic difficulties in the sense that they have had to begin with the poorest jobs but all have shown some capacity to thrive from the opportunities of American life.

4. Intelligence and adjustment

Among the indices that have conventionally been used to judge the capacity of various ethnic groups for Americanization was their intelligence and education. This was long the ostensible justification for the literacy test since, it was argued, only the fittest groups ought to be permitted to assume the responsibilities of American citizenship.

The difficulty was to find a reliable basis for comparing the intelligence of diverse groups. The Army intelligence tests 1917–18 were inconclusive since it was difficult to eliminate the effect of differences of environment on the results. All that can reliably be deduced from these tests is that duration of residence was a significant factor. Beyond that, there is no sound basis for establishing valid differences in intelligence among various ethnic groups.[92]

There is a good deal of evidence of difference in educational attainment. Local data indicates some groups are more proficient in their schooling and advance to higher grades than others. Ethnic values and background may be a conditioning factor here. On the other hand, there is also evidence that the social environment is the critical factor. Negro children who migrate from the South to the North thus show a marked rise in intelligence quotient.[93] Furthermore, a general study of American education, has shown that the most significant variable in the ability of children to profit from their schooling is the character of the social environment and the class from which they come.[94] In all this

[91] W. S. Bernard, American Immigration Policy (New York, 1950), p. 61 ff., contains a long list of such names.

[92] A good discussion of the whole question is in Anne Anastasi and John P. Foley, Jr., Differential Psychology (New York, 1949), pp. 689–836. See also, F. L. Marcuse and M. E. Bitterman, Notes on the Results of Army Intelligence Testing in World War I, Science, CIV (1946), p. 231; Otto Klineberg, Race Differences (New York, 1935), p. 152 ff.; C. C. Brigham, A Study of American Intelligence (Princeton, 1923); Clifford Kirkpatrick, Intelligence and Immigration (Baltimore, 1926); F. Osborne, Preface to Eugenics (New York, 1940), p. 77.

[93] Otto Klineberg, Negro Intelligence and Selective Migration (New York, 1935), p. 59 ff.

[94] W. L. Warner, R. J. Havighurst, and M. B. Loeb, Who Shall Be Educated? (New York, 1944), pp. 45 ff., 58 ff.

material, there is little to suggest that any group is inately incapable of being Americanized by reason of deficiencies in its intelligence.[95]

5. Criminality and adjustment

Very similar conclusions emerge from the studies of criminality in the past 25 years. As to total inclination to crime, the (Wickersham) National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement found that the foreign-born committed fewer crimes than the native in proportion to their respective numbers in the total population.[96] This result is plausible enough, although there must always be a good deal of difficulty in compensating for differences due to the social distribution of the groups concerned.

The Commission also felt that among the foreign-born there seemed to be variations, from group to group, in the proneness to commit certain types of crime. But its evidence, it feared, was not adequate to sustain any firm generalization.

A more recent study tended to confirm the predilection of various ethnic groups to certain types of crime. Professor Hooton found that crime was not due to race or ethnic affiliations. But given a criminal individual, the type of crime committed was likely to be determined by the character of the group from which he sprang.[97] Certainly this factor seems, in general, minor in comparison with the other social, psychological, and biological factors affecting the rate of criminality in the United States.[98]

Juvenile delinquency now also seems less a concommitant of immigration than formerly. Intensive investigations have not found conclusive evidence that the children of immigrants are more likely to be delinquent than the children of natives; and given equality of social environment, there is even an indication they may be less so.[99]

Furthermore there is now a sound basis for believing that the cultural conflict deriving from ethnic affiliations is of only slight importance in the incidence of juvenile delinquency, and that the more critical factors spring from the social and family environment and the personality of the individual child.[1]

The total trend of these investigations is to minimize the possible influence upon criminality of future immigration. Certainly they supply no grounds for the fear that the new immigrants are likely to be more dangerous than the old.

6. Alcoholism and adjustment

Statistical measurement of the incidence of alcoholism offers the same difficulties as that of other disorders. The data is at best partial and must be adjusted against deviations with care. Thus arrests for drunkenness are not very useful since these vary enormously from place to place and are likely to affect almost exclusively the lowest social groups.

A somewhat more reliable index, though hardly a thoroughly dependable one, is the rate of commitment for alcoholic psychoses in State institutions. This offers the advantage of a relatively constant criterion and one that can be fairly well standardized. A study of New York State institutions uses this index with good results. That study found the foreign-born had a rate of 7.4 per 100,000 population while the native rate was only 3.2. But standardized to remove the influence of different age distributions, the disparity disappeared almost entirely, with the foreign and native rates being almost equal.[2]

The distribution by specific nativity groups was striking for it showed marked variations significant as the equality of the over-all foreign with the native rate. The maximum was for the Irish with 30.5, followed by the Scandinavians with 7.9, the English with 4.8, the Italians, 4.3, and the Germans, 3.8.[3] Whether these

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[95] For explicit comparisons of old and new immigrants, see Edmund de S. Brunner, Immigrant Farmers and Their Children (New York, 1929), pp. 62–73.

[96] National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Report on Crime and the Foreign Born (Washington, 1931), III, p. 399 ff. See, to the same effect, E. H. Sutherland, Principles of Criminology (3d ed., Philadelphia, 1939), p. 123 ff.

[97] Earnest A. Hooton, Crime and the Man (Cambridge, 1939), p. 252.

[98] See in general, H. E. Barnes and N. K. Teeters, New Horizons in Criminology (New York, 1947), pp. 182 ff.

[99] I. W. Halpern, J. N. Stanislaus, and Bernard Botein, A Statistical Study of the Distribution of Adult and Juvenile Delinquents in the Boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn, New York City (New York, 1934), pp. 103 ff.

[1] See in general, Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck, Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency (New York, 1950); and Thorsten Sellin, Culture Conflict and Crime (New York, Social Science Bulletin No. 41, 1938), p. 81.

[2] Benjamin Malzberg, Social and Biological Aspects of Mental Disease (Utica, 1940), p. 163.

[3] Malzberg, Mental Disease, p. 203.

differences reflect some sort of ethnic predilection or whether they reflect the contributing social environment would be difficult to say in the absence of any convincing theory as to the causes of alcoholism. In terms of future policy, perhaps the most that can be said is that the immigrants as a whole do not add to the burden of the problem, although specific groups among them may. But these groups can by no means be correlated with the old and new immigrations.

7. Insanity

On the basis of summary rates of commitments or of first admissions it was sometimes maintained that insanity was more frequent among the foreign-born than among the native-born. A careful study has shown, however, "that such comparisons are spurious, in that they fail to account for the effects of age and other disturbing conditions. The foreign-born are older than natives, and consequently tend to have higher rates of first admissions."

Furthermore, the foreign-born are more concentrated in cities from which the rates of commitment are higher. "When age and the urban-rural ratio are both held constant," there is practically no significant difference between the foreign and the native-born.[4]

The author of this study was disposed to find instead a correlation between the incidence of insanity and "general economic conditions." In that case, it might be said, immigration would have no effect upon the rate of insanity.

The problem is more complicated however. For there is here, as in the case of alcoholism, a marked disparity in the incidence of disease among the various nativity groups, with the Irish far in the lead. Furthermore, if the various types of psychoses are distinguished from each other, it appears that the Scandinavians are ahead in admissions for general paresis, while the Germans are in the lead in admissions for dementia praecox.[5]

A study of draft board rejections for mental disorders confirms these findings. This study has the additional advantage of dealing with ethnic (second generation as well as foreign-born) rather than simply with nativity groups. It shows convincingly a difference in the susceptibility of various groups to different types of mental disorders.[6] In view of the fact that the total foreign-born rate is not larger than the total native-born, immigration seems to offer no threat of increased incidence of insanity in the whole population. And in view of the difficulty of establishing a ranking of the various groups that would be valid for all types of insanity, it would seem futile to attempt to use this as one of the elements of selection of future immigrants.

From what has been said above, there seems to be the following general pattern to what we know about the problems of insanity, alcoholism, crime, and intelligence. There is no evidence that the immigrants have been inferior to the natives, no evidence that the new immigrants have been inferior to the old, and no evidence that immigration has produced any social deterioration in the United States.

None of these relationships are based on race. All may be radically altered, under the impact of the changing environment of life in the United States, and all vary to some extent with the duration of residence.

For each of the topics mentioned there is some evidence of variations among different groups of immigrants but no immigrant group, old or new, ranks consistently high or consistently low in all the categories. These variations, therefore, are not such as to make it possible to rank the groups in the order of desirability. Significantly, there is also no evidence that relative distance from American culture is a factor of any importance in determining ultimate adjustment. That is, people like the Syrians, Armenians, and Turks, relatively more alien to native American habits and ways of life are not significantly retarded in adjustments, given the time and opportunity. The evidence suggests rather that, like the native population, each immigrant group has its own points of strength and weakness at which it yields to, or resists, disorganizing pressures that originate in the environment or in personal disturbances. No group has thereby been prevented from playing a constructive part in American life.

8. Citizenship

There was some disposition early in the century to criticize the new immigrants for their failure to become naturalized; the Immigration Commission, for one, has lent its support to such criticism.

[4] Malzberg, Mental Disease, pp. 351, 352.
[5] Malzberg, Mental Disease, pp. 200 ff.
[6] Robert W. Hyde and Roderick M. Chisholm, The Relation of Mental Disorders to Race and Nationality, New England Journal of Medicine, CCXXXI (1944), pp. 612 ff.

These attacks had uniformly failed to consider the factor of length of residence in the United States. When account is taken of that factor, the old immigration makes no better showing than the new. A study of the percentage of foreign-born naturalized as of 1940 revealed that the various nativity groups could be ranked in an order which corresponded almost exactly with the average length of residence in the United States. The only exceptions were the natives of England and British Canada who showed unusual reluctance to become American citizens.[7] These findings were indirectly supported by an earlier study of New Haven which showed a correlation of naturalization with education, occupational status, and income—concomitants generally of length of residence.[8]

Nor is there evidence that the immigrants, or any group of them, have shirked the important duties of citizenship. The two world wars in which the United States was engaged in the last 40 years found these men ready to serve; their part in the armed services is fully documented and has often been recognized.[9]

9. Cultural contributions

It must be pointed out that the scope of this memorandum was such that it dealt perforce only with the negative aspects of the effects of immigration.

Nevertheless, it cannot close without at least pointing to the existence of significant positive contributions. The part played by immigrants and their children in the development of American art, music, literature, science, theater, and sports has often been detailed.[10] Without these contributions life in the United States in the past would have been far poorer than it was. Any reconsideration of immigration policy now ought to confront the question of whether we are willing to sacrifice the possibility of profiting similarly in the future.

In a more subtle sense it might perhaps be said that the most valuable contributions of the immigrants was always to remind Americans of the motto on the great seal, E. Pluribus Unum, from many one. The adjustment of the immigrants involved the achievement of unity, and yet the preservation of diversities, in American society. Any reconsideration of immigration policy now ought also to confront the question of whether that process is ended or whether it can still go on.

VII. THE LARGER SIGNIFICANCE

In the past the image of America had also a meaning for the common people of the whole world. It was not only that America was the land of liberty, in her form of government and free society, a model for all other people. But in her willingness to accept the persecuted and oppressed, she gave concrete evidence of her faith in the ability of all men to raise themselves to the same levels of freedom, as well as evidence of confidence in her own institutions.

The men who enacted the quota system had lost that confidence. The same legislators had also rejected the League of Nations, and they had the support of the public opinion that, through the 1920's, also favored American withdrawal from world politics. All these measures were aspects of a common urge, understandable in the light of the disappointments of the war and the peace, but unrealistic in terms of our future. That urge was to withdraw from all contacts with the evil world beyond our borders. The immigrants who carried that foreign world to our own shores, from this viewpoint, threatened our isolation.

Certainly, it would be foolhardy to take those old dead dreams as our vision of the future. We are totally and inextricably involved with the politics of the whole world; and the welfare and opinions of many strange peoples from Korea in the west to Turkey in the east are our immediate direct concern. We need only look at our foreign-aid budget to know how important to us is the prosperity of Greece and Italy. If our immigration policy can, in the least measure, assist those countries in dealing with the problems of displacement

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[7] F. J. Brown and J. S. Roucek, One America (New York, 1945), p. 657.

[8] W. S. Bernard, Cultural Determinants of Naturalization, American Sociological Review, XLII (1936), pp. 943 ff.

[9] See Bernard, American Immigration Policy, pp. 148 ff.

[10] These contributions may be traced in the following works: Carl Wittke, We Who Built America (New York, 1939); Brown and Roucek, One America; Wallace Stegner, One Nation (Boston, 1945); Louis Adamic, A Nation of Nations (New York, 1945).

and recovery, we would be short-sighted in the extreme to allow ancient prejudices to stand in our way.

More important, we are engaged throughout the world in a struggle for allies against a shrewd and ruthless enemy who does not hesitate to make millenial promises. In this contest for the control of opinions we enjoy an initial advantage derived from the reputation we earned as the mother of republics, the light of liberty, and the refuge of the oppressed throughout the world. We must not waste that advantage.

The quota system threatens to do so. By ranking the people of the earth in an order of national origins it informs them that some are more fit to become Americans than others. And that raises an uneasy question in their minds: Is our belief in democracy coupled with the reservation that it is workable only in favored climes and in the hands of favored men or is this a way of life open to all?

The national origins quota system, embedded in our present immigration laws rests on totally false assumptions. It was the product of men who had lost confidence in the capacity of our society and our economy to continue to expand. From their uneasy fears, they sought refuge in a kind of withdrawal from the world about them hoping for security in the purity of their own race. Out of the biased reports of the early part of this century, they drew the distorted notion of a fundamental difference between the old and the new immigration. From that notion there followed the idea that different groups of men enjoyed different capacities for becoming American citizens.

Our own experience and everything we have learned since 1924 refutes that idea. We no longer believe race purity a safe refuge; we know it to be a trap dividing people arbitrarily and distracting them from solution of their true problems. Our economy and our society have continued to grow, and show even now the vigor to profit from additional worthy citizens.

We also see more clearly what the role of the newcomers has been in our lives. Although the immigrants have differed among themselves, as have the natives, all have displayed from the very beginning of our history the ability to play a creative, constructive role in American society. All have responded to the opportunities of America's free institutions. The idea of a national selection among those who knock at our gates ought therefore no longer stand in the way of a policy attuned to our present needs and our traditional ideals.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING THE ORGANIZATION AND NUMBER OF FOREIGN SERVICE POSTS

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, November 28, 1952.

MR. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington, D. C.

MY DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: It is a pleasure to give you the following information requested on November 25 by Mr. Mann of your office.

The total number of Foreign Service posts in operation on July 1, 1952, the most recent date for which we have statistics, is 263. Seventy-seven of these are diplomatic missions, including one POLAD at Trieste. The other 186 are consulates or consulates general. These totals are exclusive of the 29 consular agencies and the 40 USIE offices which do not entertain applications for visas.

Almost all diplomatic missions contain consular sections which do work of a statutory or technical consular nature. Of the 263 posts, whether diplomatic missions or consular offices, there are 48 at which one or more officers are assigned full time to visa work. These 48 posts issued 56 percent of the visas of all types granted in the fiscal year 1952.

Sincerely yours,

GEORGE H. STEUART, Jr.,
Acting Director, Office of Security and Consular Affairs.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING VISA OFFICERS OF THE AMERICAN FOREIGN SERVICE

OCTOBER 3, 1952

Mr. ROBERT J. RYAN,
Acting Chief, Division of Foreign Service Personnel,
Department of State, Washington, D. C.

MY DEAR MR. RYAN: I am transmitting herewith one (1) copy of the Commission's questionnaire entitled "Information Concerning Visa Officers of the American Foreign Service Requested from the Department of State." It would be appreciated very much if your Division would undertake to prepare replies to the various questions propounded therein. As you know, Mr. Frederick J. Mann, detailed to the Commission staff from the Department, has already informally discussed the questionnaire with Mr. Woodyear and Mr. Calloway in the Division of Foreign Service Personnel.

We realize that certain of the questions will require rather extensive research in order that accurate replies can be made, particularly in the case of such queries as Nos. 10 and 11. However, since the Commission has such a limited period of time at its disposal, I fear I must request that the attached questionnaire be completed and returned here no later than the end of October, and earlier if at all possible.

I should like to propose, as an aid to your handling of the task, that the sampling technique be employed in preparing replies to such questions as Nos. 6, 7 (a) and (b), 10, and 11, and suggest that the records of 50 consular officers engaged in visa work, in both the Foreign Service officer and Foreign Service staff-officer categories, be surveyed for the purposes, and that as comprehensive a spread as possible be obtained so that a fair, realistic picture will be presented.

Additional copies of the enclosed questionnaire are being distributed to your Division so that a sufficient quantity will be available for working purposes.

Very truly yours,

HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, October 10, 1952.

Mr. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington, D. C.

MY DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: I have received your letter of October 3, 1952, and the questionnaire enclosed therewith, concerning the President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization.

As you state, the answers to some of the questions will require considerable research and I appreciate your suggestion that we may employ the sampling technique as a means of lessening the load.

The Division of Foreign Service Personnel will make every effort to complete the questionnaire as soon as possible, and, unless we run into some unforeseen trouble, I feel sure that you will receive it by the end of October.

Very truly yours,

ROBERT J. RYAN,
Assistant Chief, Division of Foreign Service Personnel.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, October 31, 1952.

Mr. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington, D. C.

MY DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: Reference is made to the questionnaire enclosed with your letter of October 3, 1952, and Mr. Ryan's reply of October 10, 1952, concerning the President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization.

I am pleased to return herewith the completed questionnaire and additional data which, it is believed, will assist the Commission in making its survey relating to immigration and naturalization matters.

Please feel free to call upon the Department if additional information is necessary.

Sincerely yours,

ROBERT F. WOODWARD,
Chief, Division of Foreign Service Personnel.

Enclosures: Questionnaire of President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, with attachments as stated thereon.

PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION QUESTIONNAIRE

(Information concerning visa officers of the American Foreign Service requested from the Department of State)

NOTE.—The information requested below is desired by the Commission for use in carrying out the objectives assigned it under Executive Order 10392.

By the term "visa officers" the Commission has reference only to those American consular officers who are currently engaged exclusively or primarily in visa work, immigrant and nonimmigrant.

QUESTIONS

1. How many visa officers were there on duty abroad as of (please give latest possible date): October 15, 1952, Number: 366.
2. Please state the number of such visa officers on duty as of that date in each of the five geographical area subdivisions, as indicated:
   EUR: BNA, 82; EE, 20; WE, 70.
   GER: 45.
   FE: CA, 4; NA, 11; PSA, 13.
   NEA: GH, 12; SOA, 7; NE, 22; AF, 16.
   ARA: MID, 45; OSA, 19.
3. Do the totals given in (2) constitute the full authorized totals under current applicable appropriations? Yes . No. X. If "no," please give the authorized totals: EUR has one visa-officer vacancy; GER has four; ARA has one; FE and NEA are up to complement.
4. Please list here the standard or basic qualifications established for visa officers (include basic job description): (Answer attached.)
5. What rewards or other incentives exist for consular officers in the middle and lower grades, and for beginners, in the Foreign Service, to become visa officers? (Answer attached.)
6. What is the average number of years of service of a visa officer? 5 years 2 months. Of other consular officers? Estimated 10 years 6 months.
7. (a). What is the average beginning age of a visa officer? 30 years 1 month.
   (b). What is the average ending or retirement age of a visa officer? (Answer attached.)
8. Please list the principal legal and administrative causes for reprimand, suspension, transfer, or removal of visa officers: (Answer attached.)
9. Please explain briefly the main difficulties and problems confronting visa officers above, with which they must contend in the regular course of their duties: (Answer attached.)
10. What percentage of visa officers possess: (Sampling of 50 FSO and 50 FSS, total cases 100).
    (*a*) Baccalaureate degrees? Sixty-six percent.
    (*b*) Law degrees? Three percent.
    (*c*) Graduate degrees in international law or relations? One percent.
    (*d*) Other graduate degrees? Eighteen percent.
11. What percentage of visa officers, before appointment to the Foreign Service were: (Sampling of 50 FSO and 50 FSS, total cases 100).
    (*a*) Practicing attorneys? One percent.
    (*b*) High school teachers? Five percent.
    (*c*) College instructors? Five percent.
    (*d*) Businessmen? Seventy-three percent.
12. Please give below any additional information, or attach to this questionnaire any printed or other material which, in your opinion, will assist the Commission (attach extra sheets, if necessary):

ATTACHED

(*a*) Visa Handbook including manual and regulations.
(*b*) Example of advisory opinion from Department to a field post.

(*c*) Information sheets.
(*d*) Report of visa training course.
(*e*) Hypothetical cases used in training.
(*f*) Analysis of exclusion clause.
(*g*) OMV correcting error in correspondence.
(*h*) Visa Circular No. 18, March 8, 1949, methods and standards in appraising visa work.
(*i*) Performance-rating record card.

13. What are the percentages of visa officers who are:
(*a*) FSO's: 109, 30 percent.
(*b*) FSS: 257, 70 percent.

(Signed) ROBERT F. WOODWARD.
(Signature: type name.)
Submitted by: Robert F. Woodward, *Chief.*
Division of Foreign Service Personnel.
(Title.)

Date of submittal to Commission: October 31, 1952.

Answer to question 4 of Questionnaire of President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization

QUALIFICATIONS

Personal

1. Must possess attitudes and personal characteristics which create good public relations with both successful and unsuccessful visa applicants;
2. Ability to exercise good judgment, impartiality, and flexibility in interpreting and applying immigration laws;
3. Moral standards and personal integrity which preclude risk of decisions which are influenced by pressures or offers of bribes;
4. Must be a representative American who will create a favorable impression of the United States Government with visa applicants and the public;
5. Must possess insight and understanding, and exercise patience and courtesy in dealings with visa applicants and the public;
6. Must have a sincere desire to protect the interests of the United States.

Education, experience, training, and abilities

1. Visa officers must have training or experience of varying periods in the Department or at field posts sufficient to provide a grounding in pertinent laws, regulations, and practices and to prove temperamental aptitude for visa responsibilities. All beginning Foreign Service officers are given specialized training by the Visa Division;
2. Must be an American citizen;
3. Must be bonded;
4. Must have a consular commission.
5. Must have A. B. degree or its equivalent, or demonstrated ability and experience in handling visa responsibilities.
6. Must possess knowledge and understanding of basic theory behind United States immigration laws, and ability to analyze legislation and apply regulations.
7. Must have knowledge of United States citizenship laws.
8. Must have understanding of relationship between the State Department and Immigration and Naturalization Service in connection with visas.
9. Must have basic understanding of international laws and practices regarding the movement of peoples across country boundaries.
10. Must have ability to draft nonroutine correspondence and to write clear and concise opinions.

Enclosure to question 4 of Questionnaire of President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization

VISA SERVICE SERIES

This series includes all groups of positions the duties of which are to interview applicants for immigration and nonimmigrant visas to the United States, complete the requisite forms, examine the supporting documents for adequacy and completeness, assemble the completed visa dossiers, determine applicants' eligibility for visas with which to apply for admission into the United States, approve or refuse the application, and incidentally prepare correspondence, memo-

randa, reports, maintain files and records, and collect and record fees for services rendered. This series includes administrative and supervisory positions as well as those involving actual work performance.

January 1, 1949

VISA OFFICER GROUP 6—FSO–1; FSR 1; IRS–4

Nature and variety of work

1. As chief of the visa office of a large consular section reports and is directly responsible to the chief of the section for all matters concerning visas in connection with the entry of aliens into the United States

2. Reviews findings in questionable cases and in complaints; interviews aliens in special cases; reviews all visa refusals; and signs or refuses diplomatic visas when authorized.

3. Acts as expert consultant to subordinate officers on matters pertaining to visas and the entry of aliens into the United States.

4. Drafts correspondence and telegrams involving matters of policy and special cases, also notes to the Foreign Office and letters to Members of Congress for approval and signature of the supervisor; drafts and signs, or reviews and signs, correspondence such as airgrams, despatches, letters, and memoranda to the Department, other consular agencies, and individuals in regard to status of visa cases, or to furnish or request information of various types in regard to day-to-day visa matters.

5. Assigns duties to officers and employees, reassigns subordinates in accordance with changes in workloads, supervises training of new employees, instructs all employees in changes in laws and regulations affecting the issuance of visas; devises form letters and memoranda on visa subjects or approves drafts of such prepared by subordinate officers.

6. Replies to telephonic and written inquiries from officers in subordinate consulates concerning action to be taken in specific cases and concerning interpretation of laws, regulations, and instructions. Prepares for his superior drafts of instructions relating to visa problems for distribution to subordinate offices.

7. Receives distinguished callers referred by Ambassador's office and other offices of the mission.

8. As instructed by the Department or the Ambassador participates in conversations with officials of the Foreign Office to initiate or revise visa agreements.

Supervisory assistance

1. Automatically receives, without instructions, all cases involving visa matters.

2. Problems involving broad general policy or interpretation of law are discussed with the supervisor, or taken up with the Department, prior to taking action.

3. Visa refusals involving prominent persons and officials are generally referred to superior for review and approval.

4. Upon request, receives technical guidance from the Department or the immigration authorities in the form of advisory opinions on such matters as interpretation of laws and their applicability or political questions concerning applicants.

Guide line control

1. Foreign Service Regulations
   Foreign Service Serials
   Departmental instructions (individual)
   Immigration and naturalization laws of the United States
   Federal Register
   Bureau of Naturalization and Immigration Decisions
   Decisions of other executive departments affecting immigration
   Treaties and agreements
   Local nationality laws
   Precedent
   Experience.

2. These guides embody laws, regulations, procedure, principles, and techniques governing the issuance of visas.

Mental demands

1. Applies a knowledge of the entire field of law pertaining to all categories of visa work, knowledge of court decisions and executive department instructions,

and precedent and past experience in the final determination of the section of the law applicable to a given case.

2. Evaluates applicant's education, training, experience, personality, opportunity for employment in the United States, and political background, and evaluates information contained in security reports as to its applicability and accuracy in the final determination of the admissibility of a visa applicant to the United States.

3. Uses at least one foreign language in the work.

Personal relationships

1. With officers in the mission who maintain records on political, economic, and subversive activities of aliens regarding any derogatory information about visa applicants.

2. With high-ranking visitors to expedite issuance of official visas, or explain procedures and regulations.

3. With various officials in the Foreign Office to negotiate visa agreements.

Significance of judgments and decisions

1. Determines the sufficiency or insufficiency of evidence on which to base decision in a visa case; confirms or overrules such determinations made by subordinate officers; determines whether the entry of a particular visa applicant is or is not to be considered as prejudicial to the interests of the United States; decides whether a given situation warrants consultation with the Department of Sate or other Government agencies for views or information.

2. Decides whether and when certain documentary evidence may be waived, within limitations prescribed by the Foreign Service Regulations, and when an emergency situation warrants a request for waiver of regulations from the Department and the immigration authorities.

3. The final effect of his judgments and decisions is to approve or refuse permission to present himself for lawful admission into the United States to individuals desiring to immigrate to or visit this country.

Management responsibility

1. Assigns duties to subordinate officers and approves assignments for clerks; reviews the work of officers in other than routine cases. Informs subordinate officers of changes in regulations and interprets instructions from the Department when the need arises. Supervises training of officers and employees. Has complete responsibility for the over-all operations of the office.

January 1, 1949

VISA OFFICER GROUP 9—FSO–5; FSR–5; FSS–7

Nature and variety of work

Positions of this level may exist at a post where a full-time visa officer with clerical assistants administers all visa services under supervision of the chief of the consular section or the principal officer. They may also exist in a larger post where one or more visa officers administer immigration visa services and one or more administer nonimmigrant visa services under supervision of the chief visa officer or the chief of the consular section.

1. Conducts final interview of an applicant for an immigration or a nonimmigration visa to the United States to verify data on the application form and supporting documents and to determine by an examination and appraisal of the applicant's qualifications, political beliefs, and evidences of financial support while in the United States whether or not he is admissible for entry into the United States. This interview may result in—

(*a*) Finding applicant inadmissible and refusing the visa;

(*b*) Finding further documentation necessary;

(*c*) Finding applicant admissible and approving the issuance of a visa after administering the oath to the applicant.

2. Interviews callers who ask to see him or who are referred to him by subordinates in order to elucidate United States visa laws, to explain procedure, and to explain the application of the laws to specific cases.

3. In immigration visa cases, determines whether the applicant should be placed in a quota or nonquota category, preferences to which he may be entitled, and the quota to which he should be assigned; verifies and initials all entries in the quota waiting-list book.

4. Prepares memoranda on disapproved visa applications giving reasons for negative action. In those cases in which verification of the facts must be made in the United States or additional information obtained from there, prepares a

report to the Department presenting the facts of the case and requesting an advisory opinion. Drafts correspondence, memoranda, despatches, and telegrams, to the Department, other consular offices, missions, Members of Congress, local government agencies, and individuals on matters relating to visas. Reads outgoing correspondence to check for accuracy and completeness of contents; signs local correspondence and refers remainder to superior for review and signature.

5. Supervises subordinate employees engaged in the interview of visa applicants, preparation of visa applications, maintenance of quota-control records, and related procedures; assigns and reviews work; instructs new employees in work procedures and in immigration laws and visa regulations when such interpretation if necessary; advises as to action to be taken in specific cases. Supervises the compilation of periodic reports on visas issued and refused. Is responsible for the collection and delivery of fees for services rendered and for accounting for the fee stamps issued.

Supervisory assistance

1. Automatically receives, without instructions, all visa cases for which he is responsible.

2. Refers to supervisor for advice on cases that involve interpretation of the law, that have no precedent, or in which information available as to political beliefs and activities of the applicant may render him inadmissible. Consults supervisor before refusing formal applications for visas.

3. Receives technical guidance from the Department or the immigration authorities upon request, in the form of advisory opinions on such matters as interpretation of laws and their applicability or political questions concerning applicants.

Guide line control

1. Foreign Service Regulations
   Foreign Service Serials
   Foreign Service Instructions
   Departmental instructions
   Treaties and agreements
   Precedence file
   Immigration and naturalization laws
   Decisions of the Attorney General, the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization, and other executive departments.

Mental demands

1. Selects the proper law and regulation applicable to the case on hand, taking into consideration individual decisions of the Department of State, the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization, and the courts in arriving at a decision as to the governing law.

2. Applies a specialized knowledge of the laws as they pertain to quota and nonquota immigrants, to nonimmigrants or to the different nationalities as they are affected by the different laws, in determining admissibility of applicants; applies the standards for issuing each of several types of nonimmigration visas, the documentary evidence required in each case, and the basis for refusal in each case.

3. Applies the laws, obtains all the facts of the case from the individual in view of language differences, of objection to replying to personal questions, and of frequent expectation of special treatment. Evaluates the evidence as to work background, adaptability to various economic areas in the United States, financial support, whether or not the applicant is a bona fide nonimmigrant, and similar factors, including consideration of conditions in the United States.

4. In meeting the public, applies interviewing techniques, and uses at least one major foreign language.

Personal relationships

1. With applicants to make final determination as to their admissibility into the United States.

2. With other post employees and officers to obtain information regarding qualifications and activities of visa applicants.

3. With local authorities to ascertain antecedents of applicants in questionable cases and to supply information regarding American visa laws.

4. With American business offices regarding procedures for their foreign officers or employees who are going to the United States.

Significance of judgments and decisions

1. Visa applications are not usually reviewed unless signed by chief of section; refusal of an application is reviewed according to regulation by at least one other officer. Inasmuch as an individual may be refused admission at the port of entry by the immigration officers, it is extremely important that each case be thoroughly investigated and the facts carefully evaluated in order to prevent, as far as possible, such a refusal.

2. The basic effect of the incumbent's decision is to grant a permit to an individual to apply for admission into the United States and thus to influence the nature of the United States population through permanent or temporary residence in the United States.

3. All except local correspondence is reviewed and signed by a superior officer.

Management responsibility

1. Advises and instructs subordinates in work procedures, laws and regulations pertaining to the work; assigns and reviews work for accuracy and completeness; has full responsibility for daily work operations.

2. Confers with supervisor on matters of personnel utilization and on action to be taken in major disciplinary cases.

January 1, 1949

VISA SCREENING OFFICER GROUP 10—FSO–5; FSR–5; FSS–8

Nature and variety of work

Supervises and directs the activities of a small group (3–6) of subordinates engaged in the investigation of applicants for entry into the United States under existing immigration laws and regulations.

Furnishes on-the-job instruction in investigative methods, techniques, and practices to subordinate agents; schedules assignments of cases, plans methods of investigation, resolves unusual problems, reviews and approves reports of investigations.

Supervisory assistance

Receives assignments in the normal flow of work without instruction as to procedure, accompanied by information as to leads previously uncovered through preliminary interviews and results of examination of documents submitted; assignments are concerned with results rather than methods.

Supervisor, usually the consular officer in charge of immigration visa operations at a Foreign Service establishment in an American zone of occupation in Europe, furnishes advice regarding policies, lends prestige in establishing contacts and introduce incumbent to previously established contacts, passes along and interprets instructions from the Department, and acts as expert consultant on visa or nationality laws and regulations which affect the work.

Guide-line control

Same as visa-screening officer group 12.

Mental demands

Applies investigative techniques and a knowledge of applicable laws, regulations, policies, and procedures to particular cases, including those which have created particular problems for subordinates; advises and instructs subordinates in particular cases as well as over all aspects of the work; adapts techniques and procedures to local conditions; determines appropriate sources of information and selects procedures, methods, and techniques to be employed.

Determines manner of presenting material, adequacy and validity of report content; selects pertinent information to be included in reports and decides whether further investigation is necessary; plans and implements methods and sources for verifying conflicting data.

Plans and organizes work schedules, methods, procedures, and sources to be used by subordinates.

Correlates, organizes, analyzes, and evaluates data collected by subordinates and prepares composite reports.

Uses fluent speaking and reading knowledge of local and possibly other languages.

Personal relationships

Same as visa-screening officer group 12.

Significance of judgments and decisions

Decides whether subordinates have made complete investigation in individual cases; also, whether conclusions drawn by subordinates appear to be valid; thoroughness of investigation may be the deciding factor affecting entry of an alien into the United States; validity of part of the evidence collected is not susceptible to supervisory review.

Management responsibility

Organizes and plans work of investigative group in a manner designed to attain maximum efficiency and most satisfactory results; assigns cases for investigation, discusses objectives, methods of operation, data to be secured, and sources to be contacted; interprets changes in regulations or policy instructions; gives advice when unusual situations are encountered; reviews and approves reports of investigations.

January 1, 1949

VISA OFFICER GROUP 12—FSO–6; FSR–6; FSS–10

Nature and variety of work

Performs duties which involve the application of United States immigration laws, regulations, and procedures in connection with the granting of visas in order to seek permission to enter the United States for immigration or as a temporary visitor; approves and signs visa applications which conform to established patterns of procedure and precedent, subject to later review by the supervisor.

Conducts interviews in English and one or more foreign languages with persons of various levels of education and culture who apply for visas granting permission to seek entry into the United States; interviews applicants for purposes of establishing identity, explaining legal and documentary requirements for visas, and determining eligibility or noneligibility for the visa requested; attempts to detect fraud in oral or written statements of applicants or in documents submitted to support visa applications.

Examines and evaluates evidence submitted to ascertain that all requirements and provisions of laws and regulations are met by applicants; uses own initiative to draft correspondence to or personally contacts local authorities or individuals to verify or refute statements or evidence submitted by applicants; assembles and reviews all documents in individual cases; formulates opinion covering such matters as applicant's identity, quota status, possible dual nationality status, activities inimical to United States interests, the existence of ties within the United States or other countries, evidence or suspicion of fraudulent statements or documents, and results of investigations; approves clear cut cases or submits dossier to supervisor for decision.

Drafts correspondence and opinions which follow established policy as to pattern and extent of information to be given out, but which involve considerable variation in phraseology and type of data presented; compiles data and drafts or reviews periodic reports such as statistics of services performed or quota registration reports.

Interprets regulations, assists and advises subordinate or less experienced personnel as to requirements of laws and regulations and procedures to be followed in nonroutine cases.

Supervises clerical employees engaged in related activities such as answering routine personal and telephonic inquiries, maintaining files and records, filling in data on applications and other consular forms, collecting and recording prescribed consular fees.

Supervisory assistance

Receives incoming correspondence, changes in regulations, and instructions from the Department with written memoranda or oral instructions from supervisor when such material involves changes in policy or procedure or unusual cases; discusses with supervisor or submits for approval drafts of correspondence of other than established pattern; interviews applicants for visas without supervision; select the proper forms to be completed and determines independently if

the responses from applicant, completed forms, and supporting documents are adequate. (The mechanical process of filling in standard data on forms is usually performed by a subordinate clerk or the applicant.) Refers complex cases for which no precedents exist to the supervisor for decision as to procedural course to be followed; consults supervisor in questions of workload distribution and assignments to subordinates.

Guide-line control

Same as visa officer group 9.

Mental demands

1. Applies knowledge of United States and local immigration, nationality, and visa laws and regulations to supply information to applicants, to explain requirements, and to determine if they are eligible for the service desired.

2. Conducts interviews and phrases questions in a manner designed to elicit maximum information from applicants, especially when there is a suspicion of fraud or that the reason given by the applicant for the service requested is used as a pretext. As an example, a person may request a visitor's or student's visa in order to enter the United States, when the real reason may be for permanent residence or subversive purposes.

Personal relationships

Conducts personal interviews with persons of various levels of education and culture who apply for visa services, many of whom expect special treatment or are reluctant to supply information that may affect their application adversely, explains to unqualified applicants the reasons for nonapproval; regularly contacts minor officials in the local government, consulates of other countries, educational institutions, and similar organization in order to explain regulations and requirements and to obtain or verify factual or documentary data concerning applicants or information concerning local laws and regulations.

Significance of judgments and decisions

1. Decisions as to eligibility of applicant or sufficiency of evidence in clear-cut cases of recurring type are usually not subjected to review other than spot checks for accuracy of decision or adequacy of evidence.

2. For each caller, incumbent decides the service to be rendered, the form to be completed, and whether evidence submitted meets the requirements of established policy and the Foreign Service regulations.

3. Gathers evidence in interviews and through investigation which may influence the supervisor's decision and result in approval or disapproval of a visa application.

4. May determine eligibility or ineligibility of applicants through judgment applied to such matters as interpretation of regulations, selection of local officials to be contacted in making investigations, or analysis of variations in spelling of foreign names.

5. Delay in the handling of a case or detention of a person by the immigration authorities might result from erroneous judgment.

Management responsibility

Assigns work to clerical employees; reviews completed work for accuracy and adequacy; gives instructions to and interprets regulations for lesser trained employees; assists supervisor in management of the unit by overseeing the performance of established procedures and suggesting new procedures when called for by changes in workload or character of duties.

Answer to Question 5 of Questionnaire of President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization

The following incentives or rewards are offered to all employees who wish to specialize in meticulous, painstaking visa work, which is governed entirely by detailed laws and regulations:

1. The demand for good visa officers constantly increases with the growing complexity and volume of the work. While rewards in the form of promotion are probably not commensurate with the grueling nature of the duties, countless visa officers have expressed a preference for it because of its human appeal. The strong attraction is to those officers who have a natural liking for people and derive psychic income from ministering to the needs of their fellow men; this is the same motivation that is felt by dedicated members of the clergy and the medical, legal, and teaching professions.

2. Promotion resulting from high-caliber performance.
3. Preparation for taking charge of larger consular sections or smaller consular offices for middle and lower grades, and taking charge of visa sections for beginners.
4. Development of political and other intelligence from applicants and sources connected with them.
5. To attain commissioned status as consul, by congressional action for staff visa consuls in middle and lower grades, and as vice consuls for beginners.
6. Honor awards for performance beyond the norm.
7. Satisfaction in performing a function of the Foreign Service in a superior workmanlike fashion.

Answer to Question 7 (b) of Questionnaire of President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization

No special retirement provisions for visa officers distinguish them from the rest of the Foreign Service. The general retirement provisions are as follows:
FSO's: Voluntary retirement at age 50 with 20 years of service. Involuntary retirement at 60, except for career ministers at age 65.
FSS's: Voluntary retirement on reduced annuity at 55 with 30 years of service; on full annuity at 60 years with 30 years; on full annuity at 62 years with 15 years. Involuntary retirement at 70 with 15 years.

Answer to question 8 of questionnaire of President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization

The Visa Division has had very few occasions to reprimand visa officers in the field. The reason is to be found largely in the close supervision exercised by the Division by means of 100-percent review of oversea correspondence on visa cases from consular officers to residents of the United States, and by means of the advisory opinion procedure and inspections. Constant corrective action keeps the standard of performance high and errors of sufficient gravity to call for disciplinary action are correspondingly rare.
Although the following is an imposing list of causes for transfer, suspension, or removal of visa officers, there have been relatively few cases when any action has been necessary in connection with item 3 through item 11, inclusive.
1. Change from visa work to some other activity in the Consular Branch or to a new field of endeavor in the Foreign Service.
2. Completion by young Foreign Service officers of their period of visa training.
3. Decline in effectiveness as a visa officer.
4. Repeated disregard of laws, regulations, and instructions concerning the issuance of visas.
5. Habitual discourtesy to visa applicants.
6. Continued association with questionable characters or disreputable visa firms and lawyers.
7. Accepting gifts from visa applicants.
8. Strong convictions which point to corruption but with little or no actual proof to prosecute.
9. Irregularities concerning the issuance of visas.
10. Having a part in or being connected with a visa scandal.
11. Malfeasance in office.

Answer to question 9 of questionnaire of President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization

Visa work is characterized by extraordinary demands on the officer who is called upon to translate a great body of complex laws and regulations into terms of success or failure in the lives of the persons who stand before him. The chief elements in the task may be described thus:

1. *Responsibility*

The officer is obliged to administer laws which, if applied unwisely or unskillfully could result in detriment to his country, or in human tragedy. The decisions he must make are sometimes exceedingly difficult, and the weight of argument pro and con delicately balanced. To arrive at the correct decision he must be genuinely sympathetic to the alien applicant, but at the same time he must be alert to attempted fraud on the part of the person he is trying to help. He must face this situation repeatedly without becoming cynical or insensitive.

2. *Pressure*

Frequently the visa officer is subjected to entreaty, threats, cajolery, subornation, or at least the continual wear of repeated importunities. Many applicants do not understand; persons refused on security grounds almost always pretend they do not understand, and demands for unlawful preferential treatment are commonplace. The visa officer must stand firmly on the law, resisting improper pressure and still remaining open to new evidence. This calls for firmness of character and monumental patience.

3. *Complexity*

Not the least of the visa officer's worries is the technical job of learning laws and regulations and keeping abreast of the changes in them, especially in the field of internal security and the public interest.

(NOTE): Constant studies are being carried on for the improvement of techniques, for the removal of backlogs, and for giving increased service to the public applying for visas. In the EUR posts, for example, there has been an increase of 26 percent in workload from FY 1951 to FY 1952 in the face of severe budgetary cuts.

Answer to question 12 of questionnaire of President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization

(*a*) Visa handbook including manual and regulations (one copy only).
(*b*) Example of advisory opinion from Department to a field post.
(*c*) Information sheets.
(*d*) Report of visa training course.
(*e*) Hypothetical cases used in training.
(*f*) Analysis of exclusion clauses (single copy).
(*g*) OMV correcting error in correspondence.
(*h*) Visa Circular No. 18, March 8, 1949, methods and standards in appraising visa work.
(*i*) Performance rating record card.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING GROUNDS FOR REFUSAL OF IMMIGRATION VISAS

OCTOBER 8, 1952.

MR. S. D. BOYKIN,
Director, Office of Security and Consular Affairs,
Department of State, Washington 25, D. C.

MY DEAR MR. BOYKIN: This Commission desires to obtain such data as may be obtained without too great difficulty by the end of the current month regarding various grounds of refusals, both formal and informal, of immigration visas during the fiscal years 1948 through 1952. I am informed that the Department's Visa Division has been requested also to supply to the Commission whatever data of that type it has on hand. We have been informed that it will undertake to do whatever it can in that respect but that Division has indicated that its own records do not, in all probability, contain sufficient information.

Consequently, it would be very much appreciated if the larger visa-issuing posts in our Foreign Service could be requested promptly by circular telegram, chargeable to the account of this Commission, to supply the following information for the fiscal years mentioned: Selecting at random 50 refusal cases in each of the years in question, what number of immigration visas were refused upon such grounds as medical reasons, security reasons, likelihood of becoming a public charge, alien contract labor, fraud, criminal activities, and so forth?

It is suggested that such posts as London, Paris, Naples, Munich, Habana, Mexico City, Hong Kong, Tokyo, and such others as may come to mind as affording a fair cross section of the visa function in large-scale operation, be circularized as indicated.

Mr. Mann informs me that he has recently discussed with Mr. Merlin E. Smith of your office a tentative draft of such a telegram to be submitted for your approval and clearances by such other areas in the Department of State as are deemed appropriate.

The Commission is very desirous of obtaining the following additional information relating to refusal of immigration visas upon the basis of information received by consular officers and would be grateful to have whatever data thereon can be supplied:

(1) How many applicants finally refused visas have been—
  (*a*) Returning alien residents;
  (*b*) Spouses of American citizens?

(2) In what proportion or percentage of cases have such refusals been based upon derogatory information?

(3) Omitted.

(4) What proportion, or percentage, of visas have been refused because of—
  (*a*) Direct participation in espionage, sabotage, or other activities directly related to the internal security, military operations, or external affairs of the United States;
  (*b*) Membership in the American Communist Party;
  (*c*) Membership in any foreign Communist Party;
  (*d*) Membership in any other proscribed organization;
  (*e*) Other factors?

(5) Have visas been refused finally on the basis of past membership in any of the above organizations? If so, what proportion of cases involve such past membership?

(6) What standards are applied in refusing visas without advisory opinions first being sought?

(7) Do visa officers rely on confidential information of past or present associations because direct evidence is unavailable? To what extent do visa officers attempt to determine whether alleged membership was voluntary? How is it determined that a named organization other than the Communist Party is proscribed under the act of October 16, 1918, as amended by the Internal Security Act of 1952?

(8) What notice is given to the affected applicant concerning the nature and basis of the charges against him? What opportunity has the applicant to refute such charges by presenting evidence in his own behalf? What opportunity is given for representation by counsel and presentation of written or oral arguments to the refusing officer? What notice is given to the applicant concerned concerning an adverse decision and the basis on which it was rendered?

In conclusion, I desire to extend to you the Commission's very sincere appreciation for the fine cooperation and assistance given it by you and the Office of Security and Consular Affairs.

Very truly yours,

HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, November 5, 1952.

Mr. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington, D. C.

MY DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: In accordance with the requests contained in your letter of October 8, 1952, the Office of Security and Consular Affairs in collaboration with the regional bureaus of the Department has endeavored to obtain the information desired concerning refusals of immigration visas during the fiscal years 1948 through 1952.

As suggested, the Foreign Service establishments engaged most heavily in visa issuance have been requested by telegraph to submit data relative to the numbers of their refusals for various reasons. The posts queried were Habana, London, Mexico, Paris, Naples, Frankfurt, Zurich, Athens, Hong Kong, Tokyo, and Caracas. Of these, replies from only six (London, Mexico, Naples, Frankfurt, Zurich, and Hong Kong) have reached the Department thus far, presumably because of the shortness of time and the magnitude of the task of identifying refusal cases which are not normally segregated from the body of visa files. The data set forth hereunder are therefore not as comprehensive or as accurate a sampling as it was hoped they would be. When all replies are received, I shall be pleased to furnish revised figures.*

*See p. 1880 for final revised statistics.

Refusals of immigration visas

Reasons	Fiscal year 1948	Fiscal year 1949	Fiscal year 1950	Fiscal year 1951	Fiscal year 1952	Total
Medical	63	69	61	53	61	307
Security	26	20	43	97	83	269
Likely public charge and paupers	23	35	42	33	38	171
Alien contract labor	59	27	22	20	22	150
Fraud	9	8	2	0	19	38
Criminal	18	24	42	57	48	189
Moral	1	1	5	3	1	11
Deportees and removees	6	6	6	9	7	34
Racial[1]	0	0	1	0	0	1
Illiteracy	11	12	17	13	16	69
Other	50	52	50	55	45	252
Total	266	254	291	340	340	1,491

[1] I. e., ineligible to citizenship because of birth as non-Caucasian native of "Asiatic barred zone."

NOTE.—See p. 1880 for final revised statistics.

1. Applicants refused visas who were—
   (*a*) Returning alien residents: 33.
   (*b*) Spouses of United States citizens: 122.
2. Percentage of cases refused on basis of derogatory information: 28.8 percent.[2]
3. Omitted.
4. Percentage of visas refused because of—
   (*a*) Direct participation in espionage, sabotage, or other activities directly related to the internal security, military operations, or external affairs of the United States; 0.2 percent.
   (*b*) Membership in the American Communist Party: 0.
   (*c*) Membership in any foreign Communist Party: 1.5 percent.
   (*d*) Membership in other prescribed organizations: 0.3 percent.
   (*e*) Other factors: 2.9 percent.
5. Visas refused because of past membership in any of the above organizations: 175.

It will be noted that the totals of refusals for the several years are not in round figures. This is because some posts reported more, some fewer, than 50 cases per year.

Your subparagraph (6) asks what standards are applied in refusing visas without advisory opinions first being sought. If the responsible consular officer has information of such a nature as to warrant a reasonable conclusion that an alien is inadmissible into the United States, he may refuse a visa without requesting an advisory opinion. If the officer is in doubt whether the applicant is inadmissible, he may request such an opinion.

In response to your subparagraph (7), you are informed that consular officers do rely upon confidential information of past or present associations where direct evidence is unavailable. Every practicable effort is made to weigh the accuracy of all information available, both classified and unclassified. Any applicant who claims that his membership or affiliation with a proscribed organization was involuntary is given every opportunity to establish that it was. Membership or affiliation is considered prima facie to be or to have been voluntary, and the burden is on the alien to prove by clear and convincing evidence that it was involuntary. The diplomatic mission (usually an embassy or legation) in the country where the political party, organization, or affiliation was organized or where it appears to have its headquarters, determines whether it is proscribed. The principal proscribed parties are named in the Department's circular airgram of March 30, 1951, 2: 15, a copy of which is enclosed as of possible convenience.

The answer to your subparagraph (8) is that in refusing a visa application, the adverse information upon which the refusal is predicated is divulged to the alien if such information is not confidential. If such information is confidential, the alien is informed of the provision of law under which he has been found to be ineligible to receive a visa. The legal citation is usually sufficient indication

[2] Since the derogatory information supplied relates to certain categories of refusals only, and not to all of them, the figures do not aggregate 100 percent.

of the reason for refusal to enable the applicant to know why he was refused and to permit him to submit any available information pertinent to a reconsideration of his case. The applicant is given every opportunity to submit evidence in his own behalf to refute the "charges against him." Naturally, if the "basis of the charges" is of a confidential nature, he may not always know what the "charges" consist of. Every reasonable opportunity is given for representation by counsel and for the presentation of written or oral arguments to the refusing officer or office. A written notice of an adverse decision is given to the applicant with the basis for the refusal stated, except as indicated above.

The Office of Security and Consular Affairs stands ready to furnish you, fully and promptly, any further information within its power to give.

Sincerely, GEORGE H. STEUART, JR.,
Acting Director, Office of Security and Consular Affairs.

Enclosure: Department's circular airgram of March 30, 1951.

Unclassified—Control 4704

CIRCULAR AIRGRAM

March 30, 1951, 2:15 p. m.

To all American Diplomatic and Consular Officers:

1. The President approved on March 28, 1951, an act of Congress (Public Law 14, 82d Cong.) which requires a change in the interpretation of the provisions of the act of October 16, 1918, as amended by the Internal Security Act of 1950.

2. Section 1 of the act of March 28, 1951, reads:

"That the Attorney General is hereby authorized and directed to provide by regulations that the terms 'members of' and 'affiliated with' where used in the Act of October 16, 1918, as amended, shall include only membership or affiliation which is or was voluntary, and shall not include membership or affiliation which is or was solely (a) when under sixteen years of age, (b) by operation of law, or (c) for purposes of obtaining employment, food rations, or other essentials of living, and where necessary for such purposes."

3. The committee report in connection with the legislation contains the following statements:

"The reason most frequently given for the denial of visas or the denial of admission appears to be the applicant's past membership of, or affiliation with, certain totalitarian youth, national labor, or professional, student, or similar organizations, or the alien's service in the German or Italian armies, or his involuntary membership in totalitarian parties or their affiliates and auxiliaries, including those cases where it was shown that such membership or affiliation occurred by operation of law or edict, or for purposes of obtaining or preserving employment, food rations, or other essentials of living.

"The bill makes clear the intent of Congress that aliens who are, or were, voluntary members of the Nazi, Fascist, or other totalitarian parties or organizations are to be excluded, but aliens who were involuntary members of Nazi, Fascist, or other * * * totalitarian youth, national labor, student, or similar organizations, are not to be considered ipso facto as members of, or affiliated with, the Nazi, Fascist, or other * * * totalitarian parties or organizations within the meaning of the act of October 16, 1918, as amended. Furthermore, aliens who served in the German, Italian or other * * * armed forces are not to be considered ipso facto as members of, or affiliated with, the Nazi, Fascist, or other * * * totalitarian parties or subsidiary organizations."

4. All cases of visa applicants in which adverse action was taken under the act of October 16, 1918, as amended by the Internal Security Act of 1950, should be reviewed in the light of the act of March 28, 1951. Visas may now be issued in such cases if they were previously withheld solely on one or more of the grounds which no longer exist, as provided in the act of March 28, 1951.

5. Visas may now be granted in all bona fide nonimmigrant cases now pending before the Department, or the Department of Justice, for ninth proviso action which was deemed to be necessary under the Attorney General's construction of the law, but which now clearly do not fall within the intent of Congress as stated in the act of March 28, 1951, and in all such cases arising henceforth. The

Department should be promptly informed of any pending cases which are still considered to require ninth proviso action.

6. Immigration visas may be issued to aliens whose cases had been suspended solely upon the basis of former involuntary membership in the Nazi, Fascist, Falangist, or Communist Party or an affiliate, subsidiary, section, branch, or subdivision of those parties, and in all such cases arising henceforth.

7. The admission of aliens who are, or were, Nazis or Fascists at heart, or who advocate the Falangist system for the United States, is to be considered prejudicial to the interests of the United States within the meaning of the wartime visa regulations contained in supplement D to the Foreign Service regulations (22 CFR 53. 1–53.41).

8. Aliens who are, or were, voluntary members of, or voluntarily affiliated with, the parties or organizations proscribed by the act of October 16, 1918, as amended, are still excludable.

9. The principal parties proscribed by the act of October 16, 1918, as amended by the Internal Security Act of 1950, are:

(*a*) Every Communist party in the world, which includes every party that has ever been a part of the world Communist movement directed from the U. S. S. R., regardless of the name by which it may be, or have been, known; the Nazi Party (N. S. D. A. P.) of Germany; the Fascist Party (P. N. F.) of Italy; and the Falange (F. E. T.) of Spain. The proscription of the statute also applies to any other party which is or was a totalitarian dictatorship as defined in section 3 (15) of the Internal Security Act of 1950. No party other than those specifically designated has been so designated up to the present time.

(*b*) Every section, subsidiary, branch, or subdivision (which are to be regarded as synonymous terms) of such parties is also within the statutory proscription. Every direct predecessor or successor party or organization, having the same general ideological objectives or purposes, of such parties is also within the statutory proscription.

(*c*) Every affiliate (affiliated organization) of such parties is also within the statutory proscription. The term "affiliate" as here used means an organization substantially directed, dominated, or controlled by one of the parties within the statutory proscription, which is or was used or operated by such party primarily to help maintain its totalitarian control over the country, or to help disseminate its totalitarian economic and governmental doctrines or ideology.

(*d*) Considering the Nazi Party of Germany as an example, the (SS) Schutzstaffeln (Protective Squad-Elite Guard), the (SA) Sturmabteilung (Storm Detachment), the (NSKK) NS Kraftfahrerkorps (Motor Corps), the (NSFK) NS Fliegerkorps (Flying Corps), the (HJ) Hitler Jugend (Hitler Youth), and the (BDM) Bund Deutscher Maedchen (League of German Girls) may be regarded as sections, subsidiaries, branches, or subdivisions of the Party. The (DAF) Deutsche Arbeitsfront (German Labor Front), the (NSV) NS Volkswohlfhart (Peoples Welfare Service), and the (RAD) Reichsarbeitsdienst (Compulsory National Labor Service) were affiliates of the Party.

(*e*) Where used in this circular airgram, the term "proscribed party or organization" means all of the afore-mentioned Communist and other totalitarian parties, their sections, subsidiaries, branches, and subdivisions, their direct predecessor and successor parties or organizations, and their affiliates. Where affiliates are separately treated it is intended to cover only affiliated organizations which are or were not sections, subsidiaries, branches, or subdivisions of such proscribed parties.

10. (*a*) Service, whether voluntary or not, in the armed forces of any country shall not be regarded, of itself, as membership in, or affiliation with, any proscribed party or organization, and shall not, of itself, constitute a ground for exclusion. This, however, in no way affects the prohibition contained in section 13 of the Displaced Persons Act of 1948, as amended, against the issuance of a visa under that act to any person who has voluntarily borne arms against the United States on the western front during World War II except that the construction of the word "voluntary" as used in this circular airgram shall be applied to the construction of the word "voluntarily" appearing in section 13 of the Displaced Persons Act of 1948, as amended, in relation to bearing arms, but only other than German nationals.

(*b*) Voluntary service in a political capacity (such as a political commissar) with the armed forces of any country shall constitute affiliation with a proscribed party or organization.

11. Membership or affilation, whether voluntary or not, which ended before an alien reached his sixteenth birthday shall not constitute a ground for exclusion.

If an alien continues or continued his membership or affiliation beyond his sixteenth birthday, the question whether his membership or affiliation after his sixteenth birthday is or was voluntary shall be determined as in the case of any other alien. In that connection, the facts relating to his activities only after his sixteenth birthday may be considered in determining whether the continuation of his membership or affiliation is or was voluntary.

12. Membership or affiliation solely by operation of law shall not constitute a ground for exclusion. This operation-of-law exception includes any case wherein the alien automatically becomes or became a member of or affiliate of a proscribed party or organization by official act, proclamation, order, or decree.

13. The term "voluntary" when used in relation to membership in, or affiliation with, a proscribed party or organization shall be construed to mean membership or affiliation which is or was knowingly created by the alien's act of joining or affiliating, upon his own volition, with such proscribed party or organization. It does not include:

(*a*) Membership or affiliation which is or was solely the result of duress or coercion;

(*b*) Membership or affiliation which is or was solely, and necessary, for the purpose of obtaining or keeping employment, food rations, housing, or other essentials of living, such as general education;

(*c*) Membership or affiliation in a nonproscribed party or organization, which membership or affiliation continues or continued after such party or organization becomes or became proscribed, or comes or came under the domination or control of a proscribed party or organization, provided that the alien establishes that he cannot or could not have terminated his membership or affiliation without suffering loss of employment, housing, food rations, or other essentials of living, such as general education. However, a person who terminates or terminated his membership or affiliation in a party or organization prior to the date it becomes or became proscribed, or comes or came under the domination or control of a proscribed party or organization, shall not be considered to be or to have been a member, or affiliate of a proscribed party or organization;

(*d*) Membership in or affiliation with an affiliate, where the alien established that at the time he voluntarily joined the affiliate, it professed a purpose neither Communist nor totalitarian in character, provided the alien establishes that at the time of joining he did not know, and did not have reasonable means of ascertaining, that the affiliate had any purpose Communist or totalitarian in character, and that he continues or continued to have no knowledge of, and no reasonable means of ascertaining, the proscribed purpose of the affiliate, up until the time his membership or affiliation ceases or ceased, or that after he ascertains or ascertained the proscribed purpose of the affiliate, he is or was not able to terminate his membership or affiliation without suffering loss of employment, housing, food rations, or other essentials of living, such as general education.

14. In all cases under paragraphs 12 and 13 above, the responsible consular officer must be satisfied that the alien did not, in whole or in part, join or remain a member or affiliate because of ideological conviction or belief in the doctrines of communism or other form of totalitarianism, and that he has never intentionally been active in the promotion of such doctrines.

15. (*a*) Membership in, or direct (i. e., not through any intermediary affiliate) affiliation with, any Communist Party, the Nazi Party, the Fascist Party, the Spanish Falange, or other totalitarian party, or any section, subsidiary, branch, or subdivision thereof, including the youth groups under any Communist Party (where the membership or affiliation is or was after the alien's sixteenth birthday) as distinguished from an affiliate or youth group comprehended within (*b*) below—shall be considered prima facie to be or to have been voluntary, and the burden shall be on the alien to prove by clear and convincing evidence, which shall be made a matter of record in the case, that such membership or direct affiliation is or was involuntary.

(*b*) Membership in, or affiliation with, an affiliate of any Communist Party, the Nazi Party, the Fascist Party, the Spanish Falange, or other totalitarian party, or membership in, or affiliation with, the youth sections of the Nazi Party, the Fascist Party, the Spanish Falange, or other totalitarian party where the membership or affiliation is or was after the alien's sixteenth birthday), except youth groups under any Communist party, shall be regarded as raising an inference that such membership or affiliation is or was voluntary, but this inference may be overcome by the alien's sworn statement that his membership or affiliation is or was involuntary, provided that, after appropriate security clearances, there is no evidence or reliable information to the contrary. If any such evidence or information to the contrary is obtained, the burden shall continue to

be on such alien to establish by clear and convincing evidence, which shall be made a matter of record in the case, that his membership or affiliation is or was involuntary. Officers of the affiliates and youth sections referred to in this subsection shall be considered under (*a*) above.

16. Doubtful cases of immigrants and nonimmigrants should be submitted to the Department for advisory opinions. All cases of members or former members of the Communist Party or any of its sections, branches, subdivisions, or subsidiaries as distinguished from nonofficer members of an affiliate thereof, shall be considered to be doubtful for this purpose.

ACHESON.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, November 19, 1952.

MR. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington, D. C.

MY DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: I refer to my letter of November 5, 1952, and have pleasure in furnishing final revised figures for refusals of immigration visas during the last five fiscal years. Reports have been received from the balance of the posts queried, except Caracas, which replied that its present excessive workload did not permit the undertaking of such a task. A recompilation of the information received from Habana, London, Mexico, Paris, Naples, Frankfort, Athens, Zurich, Hong Kong, and Tokyo (including Yokohama) yields the following results:

Refusals of immigration visas

Reasons	Fiscal year 1948	Fiscal year 1949	Fiscal year 1950	Fiscal year 1951	Fiscal year 1952	Total
Medical	100	100	69	67	111	447
Security	60	55	66	239	182	602
Likely public charges and paupers	29	40	43	42	77	231
Alien contract labor	59	27	23	23	58	190
Fraud	15	11	5	1	19	51
Criminal	31	31	59	72	69	262
Moral	2	3	8	13	6	32
Deportees and removees	6	6	7	9	11	39
Racial [1]	0	0	1	0	0	1
Illiteracy	13	13	17	13	18	74
Other	91	132	69	69	85	446
Total	406	418	367	548	636	2,375

[1] I. e., ineligible to citizenship because of birth as non-Caucasian native of "Asiatic barred zone."

1. Applicants refused visas who were:
   (*a*) Returning alien residents: 60.
   (*b*) Spouses of United States citizens: 193.
2. Percentage of visas refused on basis of derogatory information: 30.8 percent.[1]
3. Omitted.
4. Percentage of visas refused because of:[2]
   (*a*) Direct participation in espionage, sabotage, or other activities directly related to the internal security, military operations, or external affairs of the United States: 1.6 percent.
   (*b*) Membership in the United States Communist Party: 0.
   (*c*) Membership in any foreign Communist Party: 12.2 percent.
   (*d*) Membership in other proscribed organizations: 1.8 percent.
   (*e*) Other factors: 8.0 percent.
5. Visas refused because of past membership in any of the above organizations: 297.

Sincerely,

GEORGE H. STEUART, Jr.
Acting Director,
Office of Security and Consular Affairs.

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[1] Since the derogatory information furnished relates to only certain categories of causes for refusal and not to all of them, the figures do not aggregate 100 percent.
[2] As in footnote 1 above, the causes for refusal are not all-inclusive and therefore the percentages do not aggregate 100.

N. B.: An error in copying was noted subsequent to transmittal of the letter of November 5, 1952, from the Acting Director, Office of Security and Consular Affairs, Department of State (v. supra), viz. the total percentage of refusals based upon derogatory information should be 20.7 percent, and not 28.8 percent.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING PAST PROPOSALS TO ORGANIZE THE PASSPORT AND VISA FUNCTIONS

OCTOBER 23, 1952.

MR. S. D. BOYKIN,
Director, Office of Security and Consular Affairs,
Department of State, Washington, D. C.

DEAR MR. BOYKIN. This will serve to confirm the recent conversations held with you and Mr. Edward W. Harding of your office and Mr. Mann, regarding the Commission's desire to obtain whatever information it can regarding the following:

1. Proposals to create and establish an independent agency for supervising the issuance of American passports and visas.

2. Proposals to remove the visa-control function from the Department of State to the Department of Justice, or possibly some other department or agency.

Specifically, the Commission is desirous of obtaining information concerning the nature of the proposals made and the arguments offered in favor and in opposition, including whatever data bearing on the official positions of the departments or agencies interested is available.

As I recall, legislation was proposed in the Congress some time ago calling for the establishment of a separate agency to be known as the Bureau of Passports and Visas. Any information which can be supplied regarding debates on this measure, discussions in committee, the reasons advanced for and against the adoption of such legislation, would be very useful indeed.

In view of the time limit involved, it would be greatly appreciated if the information requested could be prepared and forwarded here by no later than November 5.

Very truly yours,

HARRY N. ROSENFIELD, *Executive Director.*

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, October 31, 1952.

MR. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington, D. C.

DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: This is in response to your letter of October 23 to Mr. Boykin asking that we furnish information on past proposals to organize the passport and visa functions.

In order to meet your requirements as soon as possible we have developed the attached historical summary of information from material immediately known and available to us in our files.

I trust that it is adequate to your needs, but if it fails in any respect, please let me know.

Sincerely yours,

GEORGE H. STEUART, Jr.,
Acting Director, Office of Security and Consular Affairs.

A HISTORICAL SUMMARY OF PREVIOUS EFFORTS TO REORGANIZE PASSPORT AND VISA FUNCTIONS—OCTOBER 28, 1952

PURPOSE

This paper has been prepared at the request of the President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization. It is limited to proposals concerning the organizational location of passport and visa functions in the United States Government. These proposals are from the 1949 reports of the Commission on the Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government (Hoover Commission) and from various bills introduced in the Congress.

PART I—THE HOOVER COMMISSION REPORT

Recommendations of the Commission

The report of the Commission made two recommendations which are pertinent to this summary statement:

1. "The State Department as a general rule should not be given responsibility for the operation of specific programs whether overseas or at home" (p. 32, Report of the Commission on Foreign Affairs).

2. "* * * The function of visa control * * * should be transferred from the State Department to the Justice Department" (p. 34, ibid.).

Statement of the Foreign Affairs Task Force

The Hoover Commission Task Force Report on Foreign Affairs elaborated in two statements:

1. "All visa responsibility, therefore, except with respect to diplomatic visas, should be placed in the Justice Department. Visa work presently performed by the Foreign Service abroad should be continued but in accordance with policies established by the Justice Department in consultation with the State Department" (p. 18).

2. "The logical solution to the visa problem lies in the transfer of the Visa Division functions to the Department of Justice. Diplomatic visas, however, should remain under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of State" (p. 104).

State Department's position (March 1949)

Following publication of the Hoover report the Department of State organized several committees to study the various recommendations. One of these committees was the Visa Task Force which presented its findings in a report (March 31, 1949) in answer to the Hoover Commission recommendations on location of the visa functions. The following paragraphs are excerpts from the conclusions and recommendations of this report (p. 25 to 27):

Conclusions

"(*a*) *Supervisory responsibility over personnel should remain in the agency responsible for the results.*—Since the Secretary of State is responsible for the Foreign Service, it is believed that greater efficiency would result if the Department of State should continue to have full supervisory responsibility over consuls in the discharge of their statutory duties relating to the issuance of visas.

"(*c*) *The immigration laws place definite responsibilities on the Secretary of State.*—As the law places definite responsibilities upon the Secretary of State under the act of 1924 (issuance of regulations relating to the administration of the act by consular officers) and the act of June 20, 1941 (relating to action in the cases refused by consular officers on public safety grounds) these responsibilities could not be transferred except by act of Congress.

"(*d*) *Impact on foreign relations.*—As regards foreign relations, there would be greater facility of action if the functions of the Visa Division were retained in the Department of State. If the decision is made to effect a transfer to the Department of Justice, provision would have to be made for close liaison between the Departments of State and Justice to ensure the full consideration of political factors which might be involved in a given case.

"(*f*) *No change should be made until Congress completes its study of the immigration system.*—Congress, which has particular interest in determining immigration policy, should have an opportunity to complete its study of the whole immigration system and to conclude and recommend what change, if any, should be made in the present system.

"(*g*) *Double-check system would be impaired by transfer.*—The double check established by Congress would be impaired by a transfer of the functions of the Visa Division to the Department of Justice."

Recommendations

"(*a*) In view of the relationship between the issuance of visas and the conduct of foreign relations the administrative, political, and the personnel problems which would be involved in a transfer, it is recommended that the functions of the Visa Division remain in the Department of State.

"(*d*) Finally, it is recommended that in any event no transfer of functions of the Visa Division to another agency of the Government be made until the Con-

gress shall have completed its study of the basic immigration laws and procedures, the first comprehensive study since 1924, currently being made by the Subcommittee To Investigate Immigration and Naturalization of the Committee on the Judiciary."

PART II—CONGRESSIONAL PROPOSALS

Since 1949 there have been several different congressional proposals on the organizational location of immigration and nationality functions. These proposals are contained in several bills introduced at various times in the Congress. The Senate versions are S. 3069 (February 20, 1950), S. 3455 (April 20, 1950), S. 4037 (August 10, 1950), S. 716 (January 29, 1951), S. 2055 (August 27, 1951), and S. 2550 (January 29, 1952).

These various bills provided for a bureau, within the Department of State, to concern itself with the passport and visa functions of the United States Government. The specific organizational proposals were largely the same as to purpose, differing only in the specific as concerning autonomy in budgetary provision, qualifications of the Administrator and heads of the Passport and Visa Offices, provision for a General Counsel of the Visa Office, etc.

During the floor debate on S. 3069 several Senators commented on the organizational proposals. Unfortunately, in the time allotted, there has not been sufficient staff or time available to do the extensive research required to identify, find and analyze references in the Congressional Record.

However, when S. 4037 was introduced by Mr. McCarran, Mr. Kilgore, of the same committee, submitted minority views in opposition to the bill, in behalf of himself and the Messrs. Graham and Langer. Reference is hereby made to these minority views; Calendar No. 2372, Eighty-first Congress, second session, August 28 (legislative day, July 20), 1950.

S. 4037 eventually became law as the Internal Security Act of 1950, but without the provision for a Bureau of Passports and Visas.

The last bill to have been considered for this summary was S. 2550, which proposed that:

"There is hereby established in the Department of State a Bureau of Security and Consular Affairs, to be headed by an Administrator. * * *"

This wording was kept in the bill and became part of Public Law 414, the Immigration and Nationality Act, enacted in June of 1952, taking effect 180 days after enactment, December 24, 1952.

Both the Senate and House of Representatives reports of the committee (Senate, 1137; House, 1365; 82d Cong., 2d sess.) referred to provision for the Bureau. The Senate report, which is identical to the House report, has the following reference to organizational matters:

"Section 104 creates a new organizational set-up within the Department of State to administer the issuance of passports and visas. There will be a responsible authority in the Department of State of rank and power corresponding to the Commissioner of Immigration and Naturalization and to the Directors of the Federal Bureau of Investigation and the Central Intelligence Agency, all of whom are to collaborate in the interests of national security.

"In the original draft of section 104, as it appeared in S. 3455 (81st Cong.), subsection (e), provided that 'the Director shall perform his duties under the general direction of the Secretary of State.' In subsection (f) of the corresponding section of the instant bill, it is provided that 'the Bureau shall be under the immediate jurisdiction of the Deputy Under Secretary of State for Administration.' This change of language is intended to provide for appropriate administrative flexibility in the authority of the Secretary of State to control the organization of the Department of State in the interest of effectiveness and efficiency. Subsection (f) of section 104 is to be read in conjunction with subsections (c), (d), and (e). The language in these subsections does not tie the hands of the Secretary of State in constituting the functions of the Bureau of Security and Consular Affairs, or in delegating authority to the Bureau or the Department, or in authorizing redelegation of authority within the Bureau or the Department in the interest of efficiency and effectiveness."

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING WORLD-WIDE QUOTA-CONTROL ADMINISTRATION

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, D. C., November 21, 1952.

Mr. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization,
Washington 25, D. C.

MY DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: Reference is made to your request through Mr. Frederick Mann for detailed information on the operations and procedures of the world-wide quota control system administered in the Department of State.

In reply to this request, I am transmitting a memorandum prepared by the quota-control officer of the Visa Division on world-wide quota-control administration. This memorandum may be used verbatim in the Commission's report if you so wish.

Sincerely yours,

EDWARD S. MANEY,
Chief, Visa Division.

Enclosure: Memorandum.

WORLD-WIDE QUOTA-CONTROL ADMINISTRATION

Present quota-control procedure is as follows:

Under quotas not oversubscribed, quota numbers may be requested as required. Where monthly issuance under an undersubscribed quota is heavy, as in the case of the British quota in the native country and in Canada, blocks of quota numbers are assigned to consulates prior to the beginning of the quota year, with a monthly limitation attached thereto in order that total monthly issuance by all offices will not exceed numerical limitation prescribed by law. Waiting lists are not maintained under these quotas except at offices where applications are so heavy that immediate issuance is impossible, in which case a waiting list is maintained for the purpose of chronological consideration of cases.

Although a quota may be heavily oversubscribed for nonpreference applicants, numbers may be immediately available upon request for applicants entitled to statutory preference. In such instances consulates request preference numbers as required.

Nonpreference applicants chargeable to oversubscribed quotas are required to complete an application form, which upon receipt at the consulate is date stamped (and in some instances, time stamped), which date represents applicant's date of registration. This procedure also applies to applicants under the present second preference category, where second preference is oversubscribed.

Quota waiting lists in order of registration date are maintained under each quota nationality, this being determined by country of birth. In instances where the first preference portion is oversubscribed it is necessary to maintain a first preference waiting list in order of petition date; if second preference is oversubscribed, a second preference waiting list is maintained, and under all oversubscribed quotas a nonpreference waiting list is maintained.

The Department, in its quarterly status report of quotas, indicates registration dates through which cases should be considered. In this manner, consulates are prevented from considering cases of applicants whose documents may expire before their turns are reached for quota numbers.

On dates specified by the Department quarterly reports are submitted by consulates showing the registration dates of all preliminarily (or documentarily) qualified applicants, as well as any who may be expected will qualify within the next 60 days. This is embodied in one list, and is known as the provisionally qualified registered demand.

It should be explained here that the operation of tabulating registered demands from all consulates throughout the world, and preparing the allotment of quota numbers for the succeeding quarter requires a minimum of 4 to 5 weeks and another 2 weeks may elapse before allotments are in the hands of all consulates. This is the reason for including those who may be expected to qualify.

It should be stated here, that since the law requires that quota numbers be issued strictly in order of registration date, consulates may well be issuing quota numbers to applicants, who although not qualified at the time the registered demand was prepared, have qualified before receipt of quota numbers and therefore would receive a quota number ahead of an applicant who although his registration was on the registered demand, has a later registration date. The method above described insures the receipt of a sufficient number of quota numbers within priority date then in effect.

It is also required that consulates indicate on quarterly registered demand reports the total unqualified registration under each oversubscribed quota. This figure is invaluable for use in determining personnel requirements at consulates for use of Committees on Immigration, etc.

ALLOTMENT OF QUOTA NUMBERS

The present law provides that monthly issuance under quotas of more than 300 annually, shall not exceed 10 percent per month.

Provided first and second preferences are current, which is the case under the majority of oversubscribed quotas, a reserve must be maintained within the 10-percent monthly limitation to provide preference numbers upon request. This reserve cannot be presumed to be the same under all quotas—but varies according to the habits of peoples of a country, and is affected by the trend of world conditions, e. g., GI marriages to aliens, who later wish to bring their parents to the United States or who may have minor children following to join them.

After this reserve is arrived at under each quota, allotments are prepared for nonpreference applicants upon the basis of the tabulation of world-wide registrations, so that all applicants registered within a certain date, regardless of location, receive quota numbers during the same month.

It should be borne in mind that section 3 (c) of the Displaced Persons Act, as amended, provides for the allotment of 50 percent of the nonpreference portion of the quota for issuance under that act. The nonpreference portion is an unknown quantity since preference demands fluctuate from time to time. It therefore requires careful policing of quotas to maintain this balance, which may be in complete accord one day, and the next day be totally disrupted by the return of quota numbers from offices.

The return of quota numbers presents not only a problem insofar as section 3 (c) is concerned, but administratively otherwise.

Under the present law, it is just as essential that as much of the 10-percent monthly limitation be utilized each month as that this limitation not be exceeded, in order that all quota numbers are utilized. While the new Immigration and Nationality Act permits issuance during the eleventh and twelfth months in excess of the 10-percent monthly limitation, it is not felt advisable to have any appreciable number of quota numbers on hand under oversubscribed quotas for June issuance. Failure of applicants to pass medical examinations, or to secure exit permits by mid-June would result in the return of quota numbers too late for utilization elsewhere. It is therefore considered administratively advisable to exhaust quotas by the end of the tenth month, issuing any left-overs during the eleventh month.

Adjustments, i. e., visas issued under wrong quota, reductions by section 19 (c), and special-act cases, are made against the total annual quota and may effect monthly limitations, where such reductions are heavy enough to absorb 50 percent of the quota which is not unusual.

It should also be remembered that many quotas are now mortgaged beyond the year 2000 by reason of the Displaced Persons Act.

Administration under a unified quota would be similar to the above, except that all nationalities of course would be merged. It may be pointed out that those now ineligible to citizenship could absorb large numbers of quota numbers now unused under presently undersubscribed quotas. Were any statutory preferences provided for under the unified quota, heavy demands could cause oversubscription thereunder, which would require a waiting list under each category or preference oversubscribed, in addition to the nonpreference waiting list.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING THE REVIEW AND APPEAL PROCEDURES USED IN THE PASSPORT DIVISION

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, October 23, 1952.

MR. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director,
President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization,
Washington, D. C.

MY DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: The Department has received your letter of October 14, 1952, requesting information relative to the review and appeal procedures used in the Passport Division.

There is enclosed a copy of the departmental order dated October 31, 1941, under which there was established in the Passport Division a board of review. In a memorandum dated March 12, 1941, the following reasons were given in support of the establishment of a board of review:

"In view of the increasing importance to the persons involved of decisions rendered pertaining to nationality; in view of the provisions relating to the loss of nationality contained in section 401 of the nationality law of 1940; in view of the presumption relating to the loss of nationality which will arise under the provisions of section 402 of the Nationality Act of 1940; in view of the loss of nationality which will result through foreign residence under the provisions of section 404 in the cases of persons who acquired American nationality through naturalization; in view of the requirement that reports of expatriation be submitted; in view of the provisions of section 501 of the Nationality Act of 1940 whereunder reports of expatriation which are submitted by consular officers must be reviewed by the Department of State before transmitting one copy thereof to the Department of Justice and one copy to the person expatriated;".

The board has adopted no formal rules of procedure. The persons concerned may appeal to the board either directly or through an attorney. They may have their cases considered upon the basis of existing record, upon the basis of the record plus any additional evidence they may desire to submit, or they may request a formal hearing at which witnesses may appear and the interested person may be represented by an attorney. The board has taken the attitude that it is its duty to see that the provisions of law involved are fully understood by the person appearing before it or his attorney, that the facts in the Department's possession are disclosed and that the person involved is given every opportunity to present his case in detail. It is not unusual for the board to advise an attorney representing a client of certain provisions in the nationality law which may be beneficial to the client. On the other hand, the board has no discretion under the law which would enable it to disregard any specific provision of law or to waive the operation of the law. Cases coming before the board are decided solely upon the evidence before the board and the law applicable to the particular case. If the board feels that a substantial doubt exists and the doubt cannot be cleared up, the doubt is resolved in favor of the person concerned. This office has been gratified by expressions of appreciation from attorneys relative to help and advice given such attorneys by the board, and no instance has come to the attention of this Division in which an attorney has complained that the board has been unfair or arbitrary.

This board deals entirely with cases in which the question involved is legal, usually the question of whether a person has performed an act which resulted in the loss of the nationality of the United States. It should not be confused with the board recently created by the Secretary of State to consider the cases of persons who have been refused passports of the United States for reasons of policy.

There is enclosed a leaflet containing a supplement to the Passport Regulations which explains the scope of the board recently created to consider the cases of persons who have been refused passports for reasons of policy or national security. This leaflet is self-explanatory.

The procedure relative to suits for declaratory judgment and the issue of certificates of identity in connection with such suits is set forth in title 22–CFR 50.18 to 50.29, inclusive. When an American consular officer refuses a certificate of identity and an appeal is taken to the Secretary of State, the case is carefully reviewed in its entirety by at least three officers of this Division. It has been the view of the officers of this Division that the certificates should not be refused unless the case shows beyond reasonable doubt that the suit was not brought in good faith or does not have a substantial basis. Very few certificates are refused in cases where the suit involves a legal question. In the main, certificates have only been refused in cases in which the Department felt that the person bringing the suit had failed to establish by any reasonable evidence that he was in fact the person he claimed to be. Some certificates have been refused in cases where the evidence indicated that the suit was not brought in good faith but was brought merely as a subterfuge to obtain a document under which the person involved could obtain entry into the United States.

Sincerely yours,

WILLIS H. YOUNG,
Acting Chief, Passport Division.

DEPARTMENTAL ORDER 994

There is hereby created in the Passport Division, as of November 1, 1941, a board of review consisting of three persons, two of whom shall be senior attorneys having experience in citizenship and related matters. The third shall be a foreign service officer, whenever one is available for such assignment; otherwise, an officer similarly qualified in citizenship work. The Assistant Chief of the Passport Division is designated as adviser to the board.

The board will review all cases involving the loss of nationality under the nationality laws of the United States and will conduct, in appropriate instances, formal or informal hearings. It will also handle such other matters as may be assigned to it by the Chief of the Passport Division.

The findings of the board of review will be subject to the approval of the Technical Adviser and Assistant Chief of the Passport Division, Mr. John J. Scanlan.

The board will provide a forum for hearings and discussions in order to obviate as far as may be practicable hardships and inequities in the application of the new Nationality Act of 1940, and will make in every case reviewed by it a formal record for the files of the Department with respect to the pertinent facts and laws involving the possible loss of nationality or other matter assigned to the board.

The Chief of the Passport Division is hereby authorized to make such regulations as may be necessary to carry out the purpose of the establishment of the board of review.

CORDELL HULL.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, *October 31, 1941.*

SUPPLEMENT TO PASSPORT REGULATIONS

TITLE 22—FOREIGN RELATIONS

CHAPTER I—DEPARTMENT OF STATE

PART 51—PASSPORTS

SUBPART B—REGULATIONS OF THE SECRETARY OF STATE

Pursuant to the authority vested in me by paragraph 126 of Executive Order No. 7856, issued on March 31, 1938 (3 F. R. 681; 22 C. F. R. 51.77), under authority of section 1 of the Act of Congress approved July 3, 1926 (44 Stat. 887; 22 U. S. C. 211 (a)), the regulations issued on March 31, 1938 (Departmental Order 749) as amended (22 C. F. R. 51.101 to 51.134) are hereby further amended by the addition of new sections 51.135 to 51.143 as follows:

"§ 51.135 *Limitation on Issuance of Passports to Persons Supporting Communist Movement.* In order to promote the national interest by assuring that persons who support the world Communist movement of which the Communist Party is an integral unit may not, through use of United States passports, further the purposes of that movement, no passport, except one limited for direct and immediate return to the United States, shall be issued to:

"(a) Persons who are members of the Communist Party or who have recently terminated such membership under such circumstances as to warrant the conclusion—not otherwise rebutted by the evidence—that they continue to act in furtherance of the interests and under the discipline of the Communist Party;

"(b) Persons, regardless of the formal state of their affiliation with the Communist Party, who engage in activities which support the Communist movement under such circumstances as to warrant the conclusion—not otherwise rebutted by the evidence—that they have engaged in such activities as a result of direction, domination, or control exercised over them by the Communist movement.

"(c) Persons, regardless of the formal state of their affiliation with the Communist Party, as to whom there is reason to believe, on the balance of all the evidence, that they are going abroad to engage in activities which will advance the Communist movement for the purpose, knowingly and willfully of advancing that movement.

"§ 51.136 *Limitations on Issuance of Passports to Persons Likely to Violate Laws of the United States.* In order to promote the national interest by assuring that the conduct of foreign relations shall be free from unlawful interference, no passport, except one limited for direct and immediate return to the United States, shall be issued to persons as to whom there is reason to believe, on the balance of all the evidence, that they are going abroad to engage in activities while abroad which would violate the laws of the United States, or which if carried on in the United States would violate such laws designed to protect the security of the United States.

"§ 51.137 *Notification to Person Whose Passport Application Is Tentatively Disapproved.* A person whose passport application is tentatively disapproved under the provisions of § 51.135 or § 51.136 will be notified in writing of the tentative refusal, and of the reasons on which it is based, as specifically as in the judgment of the Department of State security considerations permit. He shall be entitled, upon request, and before such refusal becomes final, to present his case and all relevant information informally to the Passport Division. He shall be entitled to appear in person before a hearing officer of the Passport Division, and to be represented by counsel. He will, upon request, confirm his oral statements in an affidavit for the record. After the applicant has presented his case, the Passport Division will review the record, and after consultation with other interested offices, advise the applicant of the decision. If the decision is adverse, such advice will be in writing and shall state the reasons on which the decision is based as specifically as within the judgment of the Department of State security limitations permit. Such advice shall also inform the applicant of his right to appeal under § 51.138.

"§ 51.138 *Appeal by Passport Applicant.* In the event of a decision adverse to the applicant, he shall be entitled to appeal his case to the Board of Passport Appeals provided for in § 51.139.

"§ 51.139 *Creation and Functions of Board of Passport Appeals.* There is hereby established within the Department of State a Board of Passport Appeals, hereinafter referred to as the Board, composed of not less than three officers of the Department to be designated by the Secretary of State. The Board shall act on all appeals under § 51.138. The Board shall adopt and make public its own rules of procedures, to be approved by the Secretary, which shall provide that its duties in any case may be performed by a panel of not less than three members acting by majority determination. The rules shall accord applicant the right to a hearing and to be represented by counsel, and shall accord applicant and each witness the right to inspect the transcript of his own testimony.

"§ 51.140 *Duty of Board to Advise Secretary of State on Action for Disposition of Appealed Cases.* It shall be the duty of the Board, on all the evidence, to advise the Secretary of the action it finds necessary and proper to the disposition of cases appealed to it, and to this end the Board may first call for clarification of the record, further investigation, or other action consistent with its duties.

"§ 51.141 *Bases for Findings of Fact by Board.* (a) In making or reviewing findings of fact, the Board, and all others with responsibility for so doing under §§ 51.135–51.143, shall be convinced by a preponderance of the evidence, as would a trial court in a civil case.

"(b) Consistent and prolonged adherence to the Communist Party line on a variety of issues and through shifts and changes of that line will suffice, prima facie, to support a finding under § 51.135 (b).

"§ 51.142 *Oath or Affirmation by Applicant as to Membership in Communist Party.* At any stage of the proceedings in the Passport Division or before the Board, if it is deemed necessary, the applicant may be required, as a part of his application, to subscribe, under oath or affirmation, to a statement with respect to present or past membership in the Communist Party. If applicant states that he is a Communist, refusal of a passport in his case will be without further proceedings.

"§ 51.143 *Applicability of Sections 51.135–51.142.* When the standards set out in § 51.135 or § 51.136 are made relevant by the facts of a particular case to the exercise of the discretion of the Secretary under § 51.75, the standards in §§ 51.135 and 51.136 shall be applied and the procedural safeguards of §§51.137–51.142 shall be followed in any case where the person affected takes issue with the action of the Department in granting, refusing, restricting, withdrawing, cancelling, revoking, extending, renewing, or in any other fashion or degree affecting the ability of a person to use a passport through action taken in a particular case."

For the Secretary of State.

W. K. Scott,
Acting Deputy Under Secretary.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING REVIEW PROCEDURES WITH REGARD TO THE ISSUANCE OR REFUSAL OF VISAS

Mr. Harry N. Rosenfield,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington 25, D. C.

My Dear Mr. Rosenfield: Reference is made to your letter of October 7, 1952, requesting (1) a comprehensive statement giving a factual description of the various types of review procedures in effect with regard to the issuance or refusal of visas, (2) procedures and policies relating to the review or reconsideration of visa cases "in which Members of the Congress, other officials of the Government, attorneys, and other individuals having an interest therein intervene in the alien's behalf," and (3) "an enumeration of those categories of cases which the Department has directed must be submitted for advisory opinions before final action is taken."

The review of the issuance of an immigration or nonimmigrant visa is completely informal and not a matter of established procedure. Actually no review (in the sense of a reconsideration of an action taken) is made of the issuance of a visa unless there is additional information made available on the basis of which it is believed that a visa may have been obtained by fraud or misrepresentation or grounds for inadmissibility is established by a review of the case, the visa may be canceled or revoked. In such instances the review may take place by one or more officers, and the procedure for refusal, which is explained before, is followed.

Procedures for the review of refusals are set forth in Title 22 of the Code of Federal Regulations in section 42.348 for immigration visas. This provision is as follows: "Whenever there is more than one consular officer at a consular office, a refusal should be reviewed carefully by a second officer and both should sign the memorandum of refusal provided for in section 42.350. In every case the officer having supervision over visa work should sign the memorandum of refusal." The memorandum of refusal provision is as follows: "Every refusal of an immigration visa must be explained in a memorandum of refusal prepared on Form 290 and placed in the file of visa refusals. The memorandum should contain sufficient information to form the basis of an adequate report to the Department or to an interested person if such report should be requested at some later date." In actual practice, this review procedure is extended to refusals of all types of visas.

In addition, of course, whenever there is sufficient doubt in the minds of consular officers, a case may be reviewed in the Visa Division through a request for an advisory opinion. This type of review is done prior to refusal, but in actual practice the consular officer may request an advisory opinion because he wants to be certain of his grounds for refusal, which he and his colleagues have already decided.

As indicated in your letter, in actual practice the authority of the consular officer to issue or refuse is placed under an automatic review prior to issuance or refusal for certain types of cases. This kind of review is carried out under the advisory opinion procedure, which is dealt with in a subsequent paragraph.

There is no established procedure for the review or reconsideration of cases in which Members of the Congress, other individuals having attorneys and other individuals having an interest intervenes in the alien's behalf. Such reviews or reconsiderations have to be made according to the nature of the case. In terms of policy, if the circumstances justify a true review or reconsideration, it will be done. Grounds for a full-fledged review or reconsideration are based on such things as (1) submission of additional or changed material facts, (2) evidence or allegations of fraud or misrepresentation, (3) evidence or allegations of arbitrary or unfounded action taken, and (4) evidence or allegations of error or improper application of the law and regulations. In addition, review or reconsideration may be occasionally granted primarily because of undue administrative delays or for humanitarian or undue hardship reasons. The procedure under which the review or reconsideration is carried out varies because the circumstances under which the review or reconsideration is granted may require the reviewing consular officer to take such steps as (1) verifying information or conducting further investigations, (2) submitting a request for advisory opinion, or (3) automatically reviewing a number of similar cases. If the review consideration is initiated by the Visa Division or considered under a request by the consular officer, the reviewing officer may have to take such steps as to (1) obtain a full report from the consulate at which the visa was issued or refused, (2) verify information, (3) initiate further investigations, (4) initiate entirely new investigations of allegations of fraud or error or administrative arbitrariness, or (5) automatically review and reconsider a number of related or similar cases.

Sincerely yours,

EDWARD S. MANEY,
Chief, Visa Division.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING REASONS FOR THE UNDERISSUANCE OF IMMIGRATION VISAS FOR A NUMBER OF IMMIGRATION QUOTAS AFTER THE PASSAGE OF THE IMMIGRATION ACT OF 1924

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, October 23, 1952.

MR. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
1740 G Street NW., Washington, D. C.

MY DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: I refer to your letter of October 7, 1952, requesting information regarding the reasons for the underissuance of immigration visas under a number of immigration quotas after the passage of the Immigration Act of 1924.

From the statistical tables which I understand have been furnished to you relating to the issuance of visas under the various quotas for the fiscal years 1925 to 1945, inclusive, you have detailed information regarding each specific quota. I will therefore not repeat the figures but may make the following observations bearing on this subject.

You will note that during the fiscal years 1925–29, that is, before the depression, there was practically a complete issuance of the quotas for Northern and Western Europe and for Southern and Eastern Europe and the Near East.

During the depression period in which there was widespread unemployment in the United States the Department informed consular offices that particular attention should be given to the question whether an alien visa applicant was inadmissible into the United States as a person likely to become a public charge, and that unless a visa applicant could establish by satisfactory evidence that he was not likely to become a public charge a visa would under the law have to be withheld. This action was taken in the light of information furnished by the White House and the Attorney General indicating that the economic condition of the country should be considered in connection with the issuance of visas. On the other hand, if a visa applicant could establish that he was not likely to become a public charge, as, for example, because of adequate personal funds or assurances of support from financially qualified sponsors he would not need to depend upon finding employment soon after his arrival, a visa could be granted to him. This public-charge consideration resulted in the underissuance of immigration visas under most of the quotas referred to during the period of the depression.

Other factors which entered into the picture were restrictions in various countries which tended to limit the number of persons who are able to emigrate. During the period 1939–45 conditions resulting from World War II, made it difficult for persons to emigrate. Difficulty in finding transportation was one of their factors. Under some quotas, as that for Great Britain, Ireland, and many countries for which there has always been little immigration, there was insufficient demand for visas on the part of persons desiring to immigrate.

It is regretted that it is not possible to attribute to each of the various factors referred to their relative effect on the underissuance of the quotas.

Sincerely yours,

EDWARD S. MANEY,
Chief, Visa Division.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING THE NUMBER OF NONQUOTA VISAS ISSUED AND PORTIONS OF IMMIGRATIONS QUOTAS UNUSED FOR THE FISCAL YEARS 1925–52

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, October 23, 1952.

MR. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Executive Office, Washington 25, D. C.

DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: I have your letter of October 9, 1952, requesting certain data relating to the number of nonquota immigration visas issued and the various grounds for refusals, formal and informal, of immigration visas.

There is enclosed herewith a statement showing the number of nonquota visas issued by categories for fiscal year 1925 through 1952.

With regard to statistics on refusals, the Visa Division does not maintain any records of the various grounds for the refusal of immigration visas and it is not possible to furnish any comprehensive data on this subject matter.

There is also enclosed a tabulation of "Portions of immigration quotas unused for the fiscal years 1946 through 1952" requested informally by Mr. Mann.

If there is any other information you may desire in connection with the foregoing, I shall be pleased to hear from you.

Sincerely yours,

EDWARD S. MANEY,
Chief, Visa Division.

Nonquota visas issued, fiscal years 1925 through 1952

Fiscal year	4 (a)	4 (b)	4 (c)	4 (d)	4 (e)	4 (f)	Philippine Trade Act of 1946	Sec. 317 (c)	DP orphans	Total
1925 [1]	7,255	41,790	2,069	1,236	760	.....	.....	.....	.....	[2] 53,228
1926	10,727	16,128	139,962	1,215	1,370	.....	.....	.....	.....	[3] 169,402
1927	18,910	15,215	150,610	1,610	1,501	.....	.....	.....	.....	[4] 187,846
1928	24,626	14,299	119,521	1,219	1,590	.....	.....	.....	.....	161,255
1929	30,475	12,575	98,987	1,245	1,434	[5] 69	.....	.....	.....	144,785
1930	30,830	10,963	62,441	1,279	1,896	60	.....	.....	.....	107,469
1931	16,787	6,925	19,815	885	1,455	132	.....	.....	.....	45,999
1932	9,292	3,481	9,392	621	1,172	82	.....	.....	.....	24,040
1933	6,650	3,118	7,523	354	841	71	.....	.....	.....	18,557
1934	8,148	3,553	8,126	478	1,106	126	.....	.....	.....	21,537
1935	9,275	2,202	7,481	490	1,330	77	.....	.....	.....	20,855
1936	8,957	1,743	8,158	517	1,525	118	.....	.....	.....	21,018
1937	9,704	1,795	12,193	543	1,828	118	.....	.....	.....	26,181
1938	10,320	1,347	14,348	604	2,470	128	.....	.....	.....	29,217
1939	7,012	1,170	12,235	1,160	2,150	86	.....	.....	.....	23,813
1940	5,638	933	11,972	1,060	2,046	109	.....	.....	.....	21,758
1941	2,256	10,736	12,796	679	1,882	68	.....	.....	.....	28,417
1942	1,217	2,939	12,416	199	1,297	86	.....	.....	.....	18,154
1943	896	1,302	13,572	149	1,055	55	.....	.....	.....	17,029
1944	1,684	1,304	17,835	167	1,889	42	.....	.....	.....	22,921
1945	5,131	1,243	23,333	233	3,131	32	.....	.....	.....	33,103
1946	6,969	2,313	30,923	665	6,370	87	.....	.....	.....	[6] 47,327
1947	12,856	3,047	37,041	2,276	11,466	154	4	.....	.....	[7] 66,844
1948	14,512	3,609	39,580	2,708	12,053	143	22	[9] 242	.....	[8] 72,869
1949	14,530	3,730	38,048	2,131	10,840	135	62	285	[10] 335	70,096
1950	14,632	3,058	34,080	1,525	9,707	94	21	223	200	[11] 63,541
1951	12,048	3,762	35,938	1,310	7,140	39	9	190	699	[12] 61,137
1952 [13]	21,798	3,585	50,636	975	8,069	29	1	174	3,010	[14] 88,286

[1] No reports from nonquota countries.
[2] Includes 118 nonquota visas not subdivided.
[3] Does not include 210 visas issued to alien veterans and families.
[4] Does not include 6,630 visas issued to alien veterans and families.
[5] Nonquota status under sec. 4 (f) of the Immigration Act of 1924 provided by the joint resolution of May 29, 1928, in the case of certain women who were American citizens but who lost their citizenship through marriage.
[6] Does not include 45,557 nonquota immigrants admitted under the War Brides Act of Dec. 28, 1945, which provided for the admission to the United States of alien spouses and alien children of citizen members of the Armed Forces of the United States by waiving documentary requirements and the excluding provisions concerning mental and physical defectives.
[7] Does not include 27,212 nonquota immigrants admitted under the War Brides Act of Dec. 28, 1945.
[8] Does not include 23,016 nonquota immigrants admitted under the War Brides Act of Dec. 28, 1945.
[9] Nationality Act of 1940. Dual nationals who have been expatriated through entering or serving in armed forces of foreign states.
[10] Pursuant to secs. 2 (c) and 2 (f) of the Displaced Persons Act of 1948, as amended.
[11] Includes 1 nonquota visa issued pursuant to a private law, 81st Cong.
[12] Includes 2 nonquota visas issued pursuant to private laws, 81st Cong.
[13] Figures for fiscal year 1952 may not be complete. Based on consular reports received in the Department of State through Sept. 30, 1952.
[14] Includes 9 nonquota visas issued pursuant to private laws, 82d Cong.

Source: Visa Division, Department of State.

EXPLANATION OF SYMBOLS

The symbols "4 (a)," "4 (b)," etc., heading some of the columns on p. 1 refer to certain subsections of the Immigration Act of 1924 in which the various categories of nonquota immigrants are defined, as follows:

1. Section 4 (a): Unmarried children, wives and husbands of American citizens. (*Note:* husbands married to American citizens on and after January 1, 1948, are entitled to claim only first preference, not nonquoa, status.)

2. Section 4 (b): Immigrants previously lawfully admitted to the United States and returning from a temporary visit abroad.

3. Section 4 (c): Immigrants born in Canada, Mexico, Cuba, Haiti, the Dominican Republic, the Canal Zone, or in an independent country of Central or South America, their wives and unmarried children under 18.

4. Section 4 (d): Ministers of religion who have been such for at least 2 years prior to application for admission and who are entering solely to carry on that vocation, their wives and children under 18 if unmarried; and professors of colleges, universities, seminaries, or academies who have been such for at least 2 years prior to application for admission and who are entering solely to carry on that vocation, their wives and unmarried children under 18.

5. Section 4 (e): Bona fide students at least 15 years of age coming solely to study at an educational institution approved by the Attorney General.

6. Section 4 (f): Women formerly American citizens who lost their American citizenship through marriage to aliens, or by virtue of their husband's loss of such citizenship, or by marriage to an alien and residence in a foreign country.

THE PHILIPPINE TRADE ACT OF 1946

Section 231 of this act (60 Stat. 141) grants nonquota immigrant status to citizens of the Philippines who resided for a continuous period of 3 years in the United States during the period of 42 months ending Nov. 30, 1941, if they entered the United States during the period from July 4 1946, through July 3, 1951, for the purpose of resuming residence in the United States. Wives and unmarried children under 18 of such persons also are entitled to such nonquota status if accompanying or following to join such aliens.

Portions of immigration quotas unused for the fiscal years 1925 through 1945

[Arranged by areas]

	Annual [1] quota	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	Annual [2] quota	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Northern and Western Europe:												
Belgium	512	0	0	0	0	0	1,304	0	871	1,181	1,255	1,168
Denmark	2,789	0	0	0	0	0	1,181	0	604	990	1,064	1,060
France	3,954	3	1	0	0	0	3,086	0	1,762	2,787	2,826	2,703
Germany [3]	51,227	0	0	0	0	0	25,957	0	16,188	23,888	24,716	21,905
Great Britain and Northern Ireland	34,007	0	0	0	0	0	65,721	509	54,804	63,561	64,466	63,703
Irish Free State	28,567	0	291	0	0	6,471	17,853	0	12,292	17,441	17,587	17,515
Luxemburg	100	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	52	94	97	97
Netherlands	1,648	0	0	0	0	0	3,153	0	1,789	2,949	3,012	3,006
Norway	6,453	0	0	0	0	0	2,377	0	1,176	2,141	2,246	2,199
Sweden	9,561	0	0	0	0	0	3,314	0	2,045	3,057	3,192	3,158
Switzerland	2,081	0	0	0	0	0	1,707	0	992	1,585	1,593	1,563
Total	140,899	3	292	0	0	6,471	125,753	509	92,575	119,674	122,054	118,077
Southern and Eastern Europe and the Near East:												
Albania	100	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	15	38
Armenia [4]	124	65	60	0	0	0	100	0	3	93	93	----
Austria [3]	785	0	0	0	0	0	1,413	0	879	1,249	1,297	1,158
Bessarabia [5]	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	36	70	----
Bulgaria	100	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	48	85	95	71
Czechoslovakia	3,073	107	0	0	0	0	2,874	0	1,379	2,581	2,711	2,476
Danzig, Free City of	228	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	45	90	91	88
Estonia	124	0	1	0	0	0	116	0	34	100	98	86
Finland	471	0	0	0	0	0	569	0	235	513	482	466
Greece	100	2	0	0	0	0	307	0	15	182	193	111
Hungary	473	106	0	0	0	0	869	0	250	555	696	653
Italy	3,845	1,149	3	0	0	0	5,802	0	1,590	3,756	4,723	4,364
Latvia	142	0	0	0	0	0	236	0	123	198	206	178
Lithuania	344	0	0	0	0	0	386	0	90	191	298	244
Palestine	100	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	47	72	85	72
Persia (Iran)	100	7	0	0	0	0	100	0	48	66	83	78
Poland	5,982	0	0	0	0	0	6,524	0	3,770	5,527	5,606	5,057
Portugal	503	0	0	26	0	0	440	0	0	231	371	266
Rumania [6]	603	0	0	0	0	0	295	0	0	0	115	134
Russia (U. S. S. R.) [7]	2,248	0	0	0	0	0	2,784	0	1,054	2,213	2,381	2,269
Saudi Arabia [8]	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	100	100	100
Spain	131	0	0	0	0	0	252	0	0	33	100	0
Syria and Lebanon	100	0	0	0	0	0	123	0	0	0	34	34
Turkey	100	0	1	0	0	0	226	0	0	0	0	0
Yugoslavia	671	103	61	0	0	0	845	0	311	597	741	721
Total	20,447	1,539	126	26	0	0	24,661	0	9,921	18,468	20,684	18,667
Total for Europe and Near East	161,346	1,542	418	26	0	6,471	150,414	509	102,496	138,142	142,738	136,744

See footnotes at end of table.

Portions of immigration quotas unused for the fiscal years 1925 through 1945—Continued

[Arranged by areas]

	Annual [1] quota	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	Annual [2] quota	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Other quota countries:												
Afghanistan	100	100	99	99	97	99	100	100	100	100	100	100
Andorra	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Arabian Peninsula	100	99	98	62	0	34	100	61	87	100	100	100
Australia	121	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	1	61	40
Bhutan	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Cameroons (British)	100	100	100	99	100	99	100	100	100	100	100	100
Cameroun (French)	100	99	99	100	100	99	100	100	100	100	100	100
China	100	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	3	61	78	64
Chinese [9]												
Egypt	100	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	25	90	92	86
Ethiopia	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	98	97	100	100	100
Iceland	100	18	33	16	28	45	100	56	80	95	98	98
India	100	27	7	0	4	7	100	4	49	81	82	73
Iraq	100	56	44	0	0	0	100	0	62	90	90	82
Japan	100	95	71	81	84	85	100	83	92	98	93	99
Liberia	100	100	91	93	95	97	100	94	91	100	94	97
Liechtenstein	100	70	79	50	72	73	100	76	95	100	100	100
Monaco	100	97	94	94	96	97	100	96	95	100	99	100
Morocco	100	83	82	56	63	59	100	52	86	93	99	99
Muscat	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nauru	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nepal	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
New Guinea	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	100	100	100	100	100
New Zealand	100	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	45	69	69
Philippine Islands [10]												47
Ruanda and Urundi	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Samoa, Western	100	95	99	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	99	100
San Marino	100	71	0	0	2	0	100	15	88	100	100	100
Siam	100	100	100	99	100	96	100	99	99	100	99	100
South Africa, Union of	100	0	0	0	0	0	100	0	45	39	86	76
South West Africa	100	99	97	98	100	100	100	97	99	100	100	100
Tanganyika	100	100	99	98	98	96	100	95	98	99	100	100
Togoland (British)	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Togoland (French)	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Yap	100	100	100	100	99	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total	3,321	2,509	2,392	2,245	2,238	2,284	3,300	2,326	2,690	2,992	3,139	3,130
Total for all quota countries	164,667	4,051	2,810	2,271	2,238	8,755	153,714	2,835	105,186	141,134	145,877	139,874

	Annual [2] quota	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Northern and Western Europe:												
Belgium	1,304	1,134	1,121	1,075	1,018	917	775	227	1,082	1,173	1,225	1,195
Denmark	1,181	1,028	1,035	936	868	870	814	890	1,077	1,058	1,672	1,000
France	3,086	2,647	2,573	2,453	2,330	2,055	2,334	1,001	2,369	2,757	2,904	2,859
Germany [3]	25,957	21,304	18,979	13,425	7,818	0	15	10,376	25,413	25,917	26,110	25,367
Great Britain and Northern Ireland	65,721	63,668	63,653	62,928	62,493	62,117	62,118	61,361	64,226	63,925	63,339	58,992
Irish Free State	17,853	17,531	17,479	17,315	16,530	16,400	16,918	17,506	17,695	17,641	17,726	17,487
Luxemburg	100	87	94	88	82	70	71	14	25	79	100	91
Netherlands	3,153	2,892	2,866	2,759	2,770	1,954	1,833	1,889	2,949	2,944	2,902	2,918
Norway	2,377	2,174	2,165	2,039	1,809	1,926	1,900	2,019	2,290	2,268	2,200	2,153
Sweden	3,314	3,155	3,141	2,968	2,944	2,963	2,800	2,975	3,219	3,211	3,231	3,167
Switzerland	1,707	1,512	1,512	1,353	1,268	907	1,044	867	1,567	1,601	1,663	1,639
Total	125,753	117,132	114,618	107,339	99,930	90,179	90,622	99,125	121,912	122,574	122,472	116,868
Southern and Eastern Europe and the Near East:												
Albania	100	15	1	0	0	0	2	93	96	97	92	93
Armenia [4]	100											
Austria [3]	1,413	757	867	989								
Bessarabia [5]												
Bulgaria	100	55	43	28	3	0	1	3	90	92	80	78
Czechoslovakia	2,874	2,246	1,985	1,208	13	0	11	312	2,441	2,479	2,521	2,476
Danzig, Free City of	100	88	83	49	4	0	0	43	93	94	93	76
Estonia	116	85	83	81	70	8	9	42	102	100	90	74
Finland	569	463	492	329	65	96	260	302	513	459	507	434
Greece	307	3	0	0	0	0	0	26	84	11	0	1
Hungary	869	465	357	98	0	0	0	243	604	696	667	676
Italy	5,802	3,595	3,280	2,851	2,262	1,459	1,769	5,124	5,771	5,622	5,579	3,708
Latvia	236	182	166	103	55	0	27	31	134	169	167	160
Lithuania	386	169	230	123	0	0	14	94	259	254	279	222
Palestine	100	52	42	29	0	0	0	83	67	60	64	57
Persia (Iran)	100	86	85	89	74	71	62	37	70	81	0	0
Poland	6,524	4,768	4,983	3,957	956	0	165	669	4,278	4,809	5,028	4,767
Portugal	440	133	161	197	95	68	3	129	313	176	24	0
Rumania [6]	295	67	100	0	0	0	2	116	73	126	109	15
Russia (U. S. S. R.) [7]	2,784	2,331	2,269	2,067	1,568	129	325	763	2,097	2,276	2,309	2,063
Saudi Arabia [8]		100	99	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	99
Spain	252	0	2	1	0	2	7	0	2	4	0	0
Syria and Lebanon	123	59	58	0	0	0	33	40	90	79	84	32
Turkey	226	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	123	105	14	1
Yugoslavia	845	600	539	294	0	0	52	527	768	746	674	530
Total	24,661	16,319	15,925	12,593	5,265	1,933	2,842	8,789	18,168	18,635	18,481	15,56
Total for Europe and Near East	150,414	133,451	130,543	119,932	105,195	92,112	93,464	107,914	140,080	141,209	140,953	132,430

See footnotes at end of table.

Portions of immigration quotas unused for the fiscal years 1925 through 1945—Continued

[Arranged by areas]

	Annual [2] quota	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Other quota countries:												
Afghanistan	100	100	100	100	100	100	91	100	99	99	100	100
Andorra	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	100	100	100	100
Arabian Peninsula	100	100	100	99	[illegible]99	93	94	99	100	100	99	97
Australia	100	33	30	12	4	0	0	1	36	42	0	0
Bhutan	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Cameroons (British)	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Cameroun (French)	100	98	100	100	99	98	100	99	100	100	100	100
China	100	58	51	46	0	0	0	0	59	66	72	75
Chinese [9]											73	0
Egypt	100	78	83	73	64	45	21	0	67	73	85	65
Ethiopia	100	100	99	100	99	99	100	100	100	100	100	100
Iceland	100	98	96	97	94	96	94	86	89	87	66	69
India	100	78	77	69	66	65	46	9	77	85	74	11
Iraq	100	90	96	76	58	67	69	3	48	70	81	61
Japan	100	92	93	87	92	81	81	63	93	91	97	94
Liberia	100	98	100	99	99	96	99	100	99	100	98	98
Liechtenstein	100	100	100	99	99	100	98	100	100	100	100	100
Monaco	100	98	100	100	100	96	99	99	100	100	100	99
Morocco	100	97	98	79	95	97	78	57	83	90	96	90
Muscat	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nauru	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nepal	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
New Guinea	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	98
New Zealand	100	67	63	69	57	50	43	53	84	78	57	21
Philippine Islands [10]		0	2	0	0	0	0	0	44	45	36	38
Ruanda and Urundi	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Samoa, Western	100	100	100	100	99	100	100	100	100	100	100	99
San Marino	100	88	91	75	89	92	88	100	100	100	100	100
Siam	100	100	100	100	99	100	99	100	100	100	99	99
South Africa, Union of	100	59	68	66	55	34	39	7	69	85	60	37
South West Africa	100	100	100	99	100	100	100	100	100	100	98	99
Tanganyika	100	100	100	99	100	100	99	99	100	100	100	100
Togoland (British)	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	100	100	100
Togoland (French)	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Yap	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total	3,300	3,032	3,047	2,944	2,867	2,809	2,737	2,574	3,047	3,111	3,091	2,850
Total for all quota countries	153,714	136,483	133,590	122,876	108,062	94,921	96,201	110,488	143,127	144,320	144,044	135,280

[1] Quotas based on census of 1890, in accordance with sec. 11 (a) of the Immigration Act of 1924.
[2] Quotas determined on "national origins" basis, in accordance with sec. 11 (b) of the Immigration Act of 1924.
[3] Austrian quota combined with German quota by Proclamation 2283, Apr. 28, 1938; reestablished by Proclamation 2665, Sept. 28, 1945.
[4] Terminated June 30, 1933.
[5] Annual quota of 100 established fiscal year 1932; terminated June 30, 1933.
[6] Annual quota increased to 377 fiscal year 1934.
[7] Annual quota decreased to 2,701 fiscal year 1932; increased to 2,712 fiscal year 1934.
[8] Annual quota of 100 established fiscal year 1932.
[9] Chinese racial quota of 105 established fiscal year 1944.
[10] Annual quota of 50 established by an act approved Mar. 24, 1934, effective May 1, 1934.

Portions of immigration quotas unused for the fiscal years 1946 through 1952

Quota country	Annual quota	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952
Afghanistan	100	98	99	97	98	95	96	95
Albania	100	75	0	0	0	0	0	0
Andorra	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Arabian Peninsula	100	91	88	87	92	87	71	9
Australia	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Austria	[1] 1,413	453	0	0	0	0	11	0
Belgium	1,304	917	0	0	0	437	220	116
Bhutan	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Bulgaria	100	55	0	0	0	0	16	0
Cameroons:								
British mandate	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
French mandate	100	100	99	100	100	98	100	99
China	100	22	0	0	0	0	3	0
Chinese racial	105	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Czechoslovakia	2,874	1,371	0	0	0	0	297	0
Danzig, Free City of	100	30	0	0	0	0	6	0
Denmark	1,181	762	15	0	0	0	0	0
Egypt	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Estonia	116	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ethiopia	100	100	99	97	94	98	92	96
Finland	569	328	0	0	0	0	0	0
France	3,086	1,188	0	0	0	0	0	0
German ethnic	[1]				6,340	3,942		
Germany	[1] 25,957	20,213	9,066	8,284	2,594	0	7,395	0
Great Bitain and Northern Ireland	65,721	53,741	42,804	36,797	42,514	48,566	49,421	43,848
Greece	[2] 307	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Hungary	869	209	0	0	0	0	16	0
Iceland	100	24	18	39	24	18	0	5
India	100	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
Iran	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Iraq	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ireland (Eire)	17,853	17,139	14,885	10,086	6,836	11,878	14,105	13,818
Israel	[3]					0	0	0
Italy	[4] 5,802	2,981	0	0	0	0	644	0
Japan	100	88	54	42	42	63	46	8
Jordan	[3]					77	46	13
Latvia	236	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lebanon	[3]					0	0	0
Liberia	100	90	97	92	91	87	91	86
Liechtenstein	100	100	98	96	93	96	99	97
Lithuania	386	111	0	0	0	0	0	0
Luxemburg	100	85	28	10	5	23	34	6
Monaco	100	98	98	92	95	89	92	92
Morocco	100	55	27	38	18	35	0	22
Muscat	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nauru	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nepal	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Netherlands	3,153	2,521	45	0	0	0	0	0
New Guinea	100	100	99	100	99	100	100	100
New Zealand	100	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
Norway	2,377	1,806	52	0	0	0	0	0
Palestine	100	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Philippines	[5] 50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Poland	6,524	1,211	0	0	0	0	465	0
Portugal	440	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ruandi and Urundi	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Rumania	[6] 377	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Samoa, Western	100	99	96	99	99	99	94	99
San Marino	100	100	59	0	0	0	0	0
Saudi Arabia	100	95	100	99	99	100	98	99
South-West Africa	100	100	100	100	100	98	93	100
Spain	252	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sweden	3,314	2,900	1,974	1,121	761	1,387	1,918	1,883
Switzerland	1,707	1,353	740	357	114	0	208	210
Syria	[7]					0	0	0
Syria and Lebanon	[8] 123	0	0	0	0			
Tanganyika Territory	100	98	98	98	99	95	99	100
Thailand (Siam)	100	99	99	96	98	99	96	98
Togoland:								
British mandate	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
French mandate	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Trieste, Free Territory of	[9]						64	0
Turkey	226	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Union of South Africa	100	8	12	1	0	0	0	0
U. S. S. R	[10] 2,712	1,317	0	0	0	0	372	0

See footnotes at end of table.

Portions of immigration quotas unused for the fiscal years 1946 through 1952—Continued

Quota country	Annual quota	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952
Yap and other Pacific islands	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	97
Yugoslavia	[11] 845	176	0	0	0	0	46	0
Total	153,879	113,523	72,049	59,028	61,505	68,667	77,551	62,096
Total annual quota		153,879	153,929	153,929	153,929	154,203	154,2851	54,277

[1] For fiscal years 1949 and 1950, 50 percent of the German and Austrian quotas were made available exclusively to persons of German ethnic origin pursuant to sec. 12 of the Displaced Persons Act of 1948, as amended.
[2] Annual quota adjusted from 307 to 310 pursuant to Proclamation 2846, July 27, 1949. For fiscal year 1950 only, readjusted to 309 for administrative purposes.
[3] Annual quota of 100 established pursuant to Proclamation 2846, July 27, 1949.
[4] Annual quota adjusted from 5,802 to 5,799 pursuant to Proclamation 2846, July 27, 1949. Proclamation 2911, Oct. 31, 1950, adjusted annual quota from 5,799 to 5,677. For fiscal year 1951 only, readjusted to 5,717 for administrative purposes.
[5] Annual quota of 50 allotted by an act approved Mar. 24, 1934, effective May 1, 1934. Proclamation 2696 of July 4, 1946, established the Philippine quota of 100.
[6] Annual quota adjusted from 377 to 291 pursuant to Proclamation 2846, July 27, 1949. For fiscal year 1950 only, readjusted to 298 for administrative purposes.
[7] Annual quota of 100 established pursuant to Proclamation 2846, July 27, 1949.
[8] Separate quotas established for Syria and Lebanon pursuant to Proclamation 2846, July 27, 1949.
[9] Annual quota of 100 established pursuant to Proclamation 2911, Oct. 31, 1950.
[10] Annual quota adjusted from 2,712 to 2,798 pursuant to Proclamation 2846, July 27, 1949. For fiscal year 1950 only, readjusted to 2,789 for administrative purposes.
[11] Annual quota adjusted from 845 to 938 pursuant to Proclamation 2911, October 31, 1950. For fiscal year 1951 only, readjusted to 906 for administrative purposes.

Source: Visa Division, Department of State.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING QUOTA VISA AND GENERAL QUOTA STATISTICS

Quota visa statistics

Fiscal year	Annual quota	Preference		Nonpreference		Total		Total	
		Number used	Percent	Number used	Percent	Number used	Percent	Number unused	Percent
1925	[1] 164,667	28,604	17.37	132,012	80.17	160,616	97.54	4,051	2.46
1926	164,667	20,061	12.18	141,796	86.11	161,857	98.29	2,810	1.71
1927	164,667	24,935	15.14	137,461	83.48	162,396	98.62	2,271	1.38
1928	164,667	25,888	15.72	136,541	82.92	162,429	98.64	2,238	1.36
1929	164,667	[2] 49,107	29.82	106,805	64.86	155,912	94.68	8,755	5.32
1930	[3] 153,714	47,892	31.16	102,987	67.00	150,879	98.16	2,835	1.84
1931	153,714	21,695	14.11	26,833	17.46	48,528	31.57	105,186	68.43
1932	153,831	7,825	5.08	4,872	3.17	12,697	8.25	141,134	91.75
1933	153,831	4,222	2.74	3,732	2.43	7,954	5.17	145,877	94.83
1934	153,774	5,235	3.40	8,665	5.64	13,900	9.04	139,874	90.96
1935	153,774	6,062	3.91	11,229	7.30	17,291	11.24	136,483	88.76
1936	153,774	6,074	3.95	14,110	9.18	20,184	13.13	133,590	86.87
1937	153,774	6,971	4.53	23,927	15.56	30,898	20.09	122,876	79.91
1938	153,774	8,114	5.28	37,598	24.45	45,712	29.73	108,062	70.27
1939	153,774	8,615	5.60	50,238	32.67	58,853	38.27	94,921	61.73
1940	153,774	8,388	5.45	49,188	31.99	57,573	37.44	96,201	62.56
1941	153,774	3,361	2.19	39,925	25.96	43,286	28.15	110,488	71.85
1942	153,774	598	.39	10,049	6.53	10,647	6.92	143,127	93.08
1943	153,774	711	.46	8,713	5.69	9,454	6.15	144,320	93.85
1944	153,879	673	.41	9,162	5.95	9,835	6.39	144,044	93.61
1945	153,879	558	.36	18,041	11.74	18,599	12.09	135,280	87.91
1946	153,879	3,128	2.03	37,228	24.20	40,356	26.23	113,523	73.77
1947	153,929	13,929	9.05	67,951	44.11	81,880	53.19	72,049	46.81
1948	153,929	17,368	11.28	77,533	50.37	91,901	61.65	59,028	38.35
1949	153,929	15,182	9.86	77,242	50.18	92,124	60.04	61,505	39.96
1950	154,203	12,339	8.00	73,197	47.47	85,536	55.47	68,667	44.57
1951	154,285	10,252	6.61	66,179	43.09	76,731	49.73	77,554	50.27
1952	151,277	10,317	6.71	81,831	53.04	92,181	59.75	62,096	40.25

[1] Quotas based on census of 1890 in accordance with sec. 11 (a) of the Immigration Act of 1921.
[2] Second preference-quota status provided by joint resolution of May 29, 1928.
[3] Quotas determined on "national origins" basis in accordance with sec. 11 (b) of the Immigration Act of 1924.

NOTE.—These figures indicate the chargeability against quotas during the respective years shown and do not necessarily represent the number of quota visas issued during the fiscal year.

Following is a list of oversubscribed quotas and the total registration thereunder as reported by consular offices on August 1, 1952. There is also listed the year through which quotas were mortgaged under the Displaced Persons Act, as amended. Considering these mortgages, and based upon the total registration shown, an estimate has been made of the number of years an applicant now registering may have to wait before a quota number becomes available for his use. This figure is strictly theoretical, and cannot under any circumstances be considered accurate since applicants who may not qualify, those abandoning intention to emigrate, failure to obtain exit permits, and other conditions could at any time reduce the waiting period for applicants who are able to qualify.

Examples are the German and Norwegian quotas under which applicants registered prior to July 1, 1952, and June 1, 1952, respectively, are now receiving visas.

Oversubscribed quotas

Country	Present annual quota	Total registration	Quotas mortgaged	Estimated years wait for recent nonpreference registrants
Albania	100	2,265	1956	25
Australia	100	2,836		30
Austria	1,413	27,163	1955	18
Bulgaria	100	1,665	1964	22
China (White)	100	1,421	1964	16
Chinese racial	105	2,495	1964	30
Czechoslovakia	2,874	34,515	1958	16
Danzig	100	4,842	1961	50
Denmark	1,181	3,755		3
Egypt	100	3,400		34
Estonia	116	3,908	2146	65
Finland	569	3,119		5
France	3,086	4,716		1
Germany	25,957	262,598		10
Greece	310	24,227	2014	78
Hungary	869	20,697	1989	40
India	100			
In India		6,320		84
Outside India		1,501		60
Iran	100	4,730	1956	49
Iraq	100	7,008		70
Israel	100	4,050	1954	41
Italy	5,677	32,107		6
Latvia	236	9,104	2274	80
Lebanon	100	2,895		29
Lithuania	386	11,946	2090	60
Netherlands	3,153	42,265		13
New Zealand	100	710		7
Norway	2,377	16,381		6
Palestine	100	4,394		44
Philippines	100	4,217	1954	42
Poland	6,524	166,244	2000	48
Portugal	440	14,871		34
Rumania	291	23,807	2019	108
Spain	252	6,208	1956	26
Syria	100	2,113		22
Trieste	100	623	1958	8
Turkey	226	8,874	1964	45
Union of South Africa	100	697		7
U. S. S. R.	2,798	46,292	1980	30
Yugoslavia	938	56,068	2014	90
Total		877,047		

Reduction of quotas by sec. 19 (c), Immigration Act of 1917

Country	Present annual quota	[1] 1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	Numbers charged to future years
Afghanistan	100	1		1	2			2		
Albania	100	2		1		2		6	4	
Arabian Peninsula	100	4	2		1	1	1	2		
Australia	100		16	16	25	22	43	42	21	
Austria	1,413	50	50	104	19	1	58	56	42	
Belgium	1,304	23	20	8	8	7	14	21	8	
Bulgaria	100	1	2	3	1		1	7	8	1
China	100	4	3	3	11	1	22	6	16	13
Chinese	105	1	37	27	52	37	52	52	49	503
Czechoslovakia	2,874	55	30	21	6		21	47	28	22
Danzig	100	29	10	12	8		4	4	3	
Denmark	1,181	44	78	1	22	20	25	32	3	
Egypt	100		3	4	2	4	4		10	
Estonia	116	7	26	17	10		7	13	13	21
Finland	569	46	36	46	19	31	17	54	13	
France	3,086	35	53	8	21	25	38	46	35	
Germany	25,957	535	253	288	96	23	176	136	74	
Great Britain	65,721	364	295	311	163	173	209	206	83	
Greece	310	12	240	143	153	65	108	78	78	549
Hungary	869	52	29	29	10		24	25	64	36
Iceland	100				1			3		
India	100		5	12	14	15	20	30	14	
Iran	100	1			2		1	10	3	5
Iraq	100			1	2		3		7	
Ireland	17,853	42	41	21	11	9	13	21	8	
Israel	100					3	1	4	2	
Italy	5,677	1,311	500	212	294	169	237	123	292	
Japan	100			4	1	2	21	50	50	89
Latvia	236	31	23	14	7		14	18	1	13
Lebanon	100						6	7	11	
Liberia	100	3	1		2	1	1	2		
Lithuania	386	22	19	17	6		3	11	8	7
Luxemburg	100						1	2		
Morocco	100					1		2		
Netherlands	3,153	47	92		30	42	23	84	10	
New Zealand	100		2	1	1	1	6	1	5	
Norway	2,377	92	154	2	51	36	39	78	14	
Palestine	100	2	10	2	2	3	8	5	6	
Philippines	100		3	31	50	36	45	29	38	66
Poland	6,524	194	171	127	69		65	132	70	150
Portugal	440	1	112	10	25	17	46	78	38	
Rumania	291	33	83	39	45		24	67	29	67
Samoa	100						1			
Saudi Arabia	100							1		
Spain	252	20	209	66	40	28	37	42	46	76
Sweden	3,314	46	30	24	20	14	11	21	2	
Switzerland	1,707	16	10	9	1	4	6	7		
Syria	100		22	8	4	4	6	16	3	
Thailand	100						1			
Trieste	100						1	6	3	
Turkey	226	7	140	43	40		9	28	67	88
Union of South Africa	100		13	1		1	3	5	1	
U. S. S. R.	2,798	98	122	15	23	35	12	52	31	24
Yugoslavia	938	42	36	50	22		18	10	49	51
Total	152,377	3,273	2,981	1,652	1,392	833	1,506	1,780	1,360	1,781

[1] No reductions previous to 1946.

NOTE.—Public Law 863, 80th Congress, approved July 1, 1948, limits sec. 19 (c) reductions to 50 percent of annual quota.

Reduction of quotas by special acts

Country	Present annual quota	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	Numbers charged to future years
Australia	100			1		1	2	3	
Austria	1,413		1		2	4	5	2	1
Bulgaria	100					1			
China	100			2	1	3	6	2	1
Chinese	105	1	1	11	7	5	2	3	31
Czechoslovakia	2,874	1	3	8	11	12	3	3	
Denmark	1,181					2	5	3	
Egypt	100				1	1	1	7	
Estonia	116			1		1	2		
Finland	569			2	1	3	2	2	
France	3,086	1	3		2	5		1	
Germany	25,957	4	1	5	1	4	3	11	
Great Britain	65,721	7	5	3		3	2		
Greece	310			1	7	15	9	9	4
Hungary	869			2	3	9	3	4	
Iceland	100				1				
India	100				1	1	3	2	
Iran	100					2	1	1	
Iraq	100					3			
Ireland	17,853					2			
Israel	100					1		1	1
Italy	5,677	4	8	1	12	71	34	44	
Japan	100			1	4	2	8		
Jordan	100				1				
Latvia	236			1	1	2			
Lebanon	100					2	2	2	
Lithuania	386			1	1	1			
Luxemburg	100				1				
Netherlands	3,153	2		1	1	8	4	2	
New Zealand	100					1	1		
Norway	2,377		1	5	1	1	2		
Palestine	100	1					4		
Philippines	100			4	11	8	4	12	6
Poland	6,524	4	1	10	8	11	4	12	
Portugal	440					8			
Rumania	291			4	3	8	4	1	2
Spain	252		2	17	44	66	63	82	43
Sweden	3,314		1						
Switzerland	1,707					2	1		
Syria	100					1			
Turkey	226	1			1	5	5	10	3
Union of South Africa	100					1			
U. S. S. R.	2,798			2	5	10	7	9	
Yugoslavia	938				1	3		5	
Total	150,173	26	27	83	133	289	192	233	92

Reduction of quotas by sec. 4, Displaced Persons Act, as amended

Country	Present annual quota	1952	1953	Numbers charged to future years
Albania	100	.....	.....	2
Austria	1,413	.....	.....	3
Bulgaria	100	.....	.....	6
China	100	.....	.....	19
Chinese	105	.....	.....	43
Czechoslovakia	2,874	.....	.....	281
Egypt	100	.....	1	.....
Estonia	116	.....	.....	32
Finland	569	1	.....	.....
Germany	25,957	.....	3	.....
Greece	310	.....	.....	1
Hungary	869	.....	.....	230
Iraq	100	.....	7	.....
Israel	100	.....	5	8
Latvia	236	.....	.....	6
Lithuania	386	.....	.....	8
Monaco	100	1	.....	.....
Netherlands	3,153	1	.....	.....
Palestine	100	.....	12	.....
Poland	6,524	.....	.....	659
Rumania	291	.....	.....	88
Sweden	3,314	.....	1	.....
U. S. S. R	2,798	.....	.....	24
Yugoslavia	938	.....	.....	33
Total	50,653	3	29	1,443

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING IMMIGRATION LAWS AND POLICIES OF AUSTRALIA, CANADA, NEW ZEALAND, SOUTH AFRICA, THE UNITED KINGDOM, KENYA AND TANGANYIKA, NORTHERN RHODESIA, SOUTHERN RHODESIA, PERU, AND CHILE

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, October 23, 1952.

Mr. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington.

DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: I refer to your letter of October 3 to Mr. Herman Pollack, Bureau of European Affairs, and to my several telephone conversations with Mr. Frederick J. Mann, in connection with the desire of the Commission to obtain certain information concerning the immigration laws and policies of of the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the Union of South Africa.

I enclose memorandums prepared by officers of this office concerning Australian, Canadian, New Zealand, and South African immigration laws and policies. The memorandum on Canada has attached to it a copy of the Canadian Immigration Act and Regulations. The memorandum on Australia encloses a copy of a dispatch from the American Embassy at Canberra as well as a copy of a statistical bulletin issued in January 1952 by the Australian Department of Immigration at Canberra.

The British Embassy did not have the desired information on hand and consequently, as I have informed Mr. Mann, the Department of State has telegraphed to the American Embassy in London to request it to obtain and send the information as quickly as possible. As soon as it is received here, we shall see that it is transmitted promptly to the Commission.

I trust that the enclosed memorandums and the attachments will meet the needs of the Commission. If you find any deficiencies, please let me know and we shall be glad to try to remedy them.

Sincerely yours,

ANDREW B. FOSTER,
Deputy Director,
Office of British Commonwealth and Northern European Affairs.

Australian Immigration Policy

IMMIGRATION LEGISLATION

There have been 16 successive Australian immigration acts, the last consolidated reprint being that issued after the 1940 amendment entitled "Australian Immigration Act 1901–40." This comprises the basic act and the first 13 amendments, and is the legislation now in force. Two minor amendments (1948 and 1949) have been passed since that time.

From the point of view of comparative legislation, the most significant part is section III, concerning prohibited immigrants. The excluded categories include:

Persons not possessed of a certificate of health;

Idiots, imbeciles, and feeble-minded;

Persons infected with tuberculosis or other communicable diseases;

Persons likely to become a public charge;

Persons advocating the forcible overthrow of the Commonwealth Government, "or any other civilized government" or belonging to organizations advocating the same (1920 amendment);

Persons who fail the dictation test (see below);

Any person declared by the Minister to be, in his opinion, and on the basis of information received from another government through official channels, to be undesirable as a resident or visitor;

Persons convicted of a crime involving moral turpitude or a sentence of a year or more in prison (including prostitutes and procurers).

The so-called white Australia policy is not embodied in statutory form but is an aspect of administrative policy. Asiatics or other colored persons are not granted landing permits (or immigration visas, which now replace the former landing permit). Under special agreements with certain Asiatic governments, Asiatics can be admitted on a temporary basis as students, bona fide merchants, or tourists.

The necessary statutory authority for the exclusion of Asiatics is found in the so-called dictation test, under which an immigration inspector can require the immigrant to write a 50-word statement in any language. Basque or Albanian, for instance, can be counted on to stump even the most erudite oriental.

There have been suggestions from time to time for the inauguration of a quota system as being less offensive to oriental susceptibilities, but nothing has come of it. The Australian Government has endeavored—with some success—to placate resentment in India and Indonesia by explaining that their exclusion policy is based on economic grounds, rather than racial prejudice.

Further details as to immigration legislation and procedure may be found in the Australian Official Yearbook, available at the Library of Congress. I am endeavoring to find in the Department a copy of the consolidated Immigration Act through 1940, which could be supplied to the President's commission.

ASSISTED IMMIGRATION SCHEME

Since the negotiation of the free and assisted-passage agreement with the United Kingdom in March 1945, Australian Governments have been engaged in a vigorous effort to build up their population through attracting immigrants. The National Government expanded the scheme after it came into office in December 1949, and aimed at an annual intake of 200,000, including both assisted and fare-paying migrants. This target was never reached, but the average intake over the past 3 years has been over 150,000, which, combined with natural increase, brought a 3¼-percent annual rate of growth in the population. This proved too great a strain on the economy, and last year the program was reduced to a target of 150,000. In July of this year there was a further reduction to an annual rate of 80,000. The Government announced that the cut would be a temporary one, and it has been investigating the possibility of international loan financing for immigrant-absorbing development projects in order that an expanded immigration program can be resumed.

A description of Australia's immigration policy and of the assisted immigration scheme is to be found on pages 576–585 of the latest (1951) edition of the Official Yearbook. The attached Statistical Bulletin of the Department of Immigration, Canberra, gives a full break-down of immigrants according to nationality, occupation, and geographic distribution in Australia. Two despatches from Canberra, 58 of July 28, 1952, and 95 of August 18, 1952, give further information on the immigration scheme, including the reasons for the recent cuts and official

statements by the Minister of Immigration. Despatch 95, moreover, includes the latest available statistical information on Australian immigration. These copies may be retained by the Commission.

FOREIGN SERVICE DISPATCH 58

JULY 28, 1952.

From: Amembassy, Canberra.
To: The Department of State, Washington.
Reference: Cerp: Department's instruction of May 21, 1952: Section D—3 (h), developments affecting immigration program.
Subject: Australian intake of immigrants to be halved in 1953.

The Minister for Immigration, Mr. H. E. Holt, announced on July 24, that the Federal Government had decided to restrict the number of immigrants in calendar year 1953 to 80,000—about one-half the average intake during each of the past 4 years. This is a decision made by the Federal Cabinet, based on its findings in a review of the financial and economic situation during budget talks earlier in the week. Copy of Mr. Holt's announcement is attached.

The Sydney Morning Herald comments that the Commonwealth's decision to cut the immigration program is a "notable defeat" for the Minister of Immigration. Mr. Holt has consistently opposed any major reduction in the program, but is said not to have been greatly surprised when the Cabinet failed to support him. The Federal Budget, to be presented to Parliament on August 6, is expected to be subtantially reduced with regard to allocations for immigration in 1952–53, resulting in some curtailment of intake in the remaining months of 1952.

Mr. Holt left for Europe on July 24, where he reportedly will confer with the Italian Government on desired adjustments in the Australian-Italian immigration agreement. He will also have talks with representatives of the West German Republic on the proposed German immigration agreement which will now be drastically cut or held in abeyance for a year or so. In Austria, he is expected to be faced with appeals to take large numbers of refugees from iron-curtain countries, the press says.

In his fight to retain a larger program, Mr. Holt is reported to have suggested to cabinet that the present policy of bringing in single, unskilled immigrants would be revised, and skilled men with families would be brought in instead. He argued that this would increase demand for products from local industries and at the same time not flood the labor market. But the Ministers are said to have been strongly influenced by the present situation at Bonegilla camp (New South Wales), where there are 2,300 unskilled Italian immigrants whose placement in either industry or agriculture has been delayed. (These Italians recently gained public attention through a threat of demonstration against the Government's failure to place them in self-supporting jobs; a nearby army post was alerted.) Rather than having unskilled immigrants compete with Australians for jobs, and also as a means of cutting federal expenditure, the Ministers agreed to reduce the intake of new settlers during the next 18 months. The budget allocation for immigration in 1951–52 was £A20,295,000. This included both departmental expenditure and capital works required for the immigration program.

RICHARD W. BYRD,
Counselor of Embassy,
(For the Ambassador).

INTAKE OF NEW SETTLERS—RESTRICTION

Statement by the Minister for Immigration, Hon. H. E. Holt, M. P.

The Government has decided to restrict the intake of new settlers in 1953 to a total of 80,000. This will be approximately half the average annual intake of the last 4 years. We have made this decision arising out of the general review of our financial and economic situation which Cabinet has been making in connection with the budget.

This decision might be regarded as a "breather" to enable us to digest the more comfortably the very substantial intake of the postwar years. The reduction will operate while we are forming a clearer picture of the shape the economy is likely to take after we have passed through the present difficult stage. Our national requirements of security and development, which have dictated a program of large-scale migration, remain.

We believe, however, that the time has arrived for us to absorb our gains. Our intake of migrants in recent years, particularly since a big defense program became necessary, has been a good deal larger than we would have arranged had we been able to assure ourselves that favorable opportunities and conditions would continue indefinitely. We felt, however, that we had to seize the advantageous conditions existing for migration from the United Kingdom and Europe which might not be soon repeated.

What the United States was able to do for herself by way of population building over a long span of years in the more leisurely nineteenth century, we have felt compelled by the threats apparent in this twentieth century to do more quickly.

The stresses of modern immigration are not always fully realized. Today, it is expected of governments by the new settlers, and indeed by the citizens of the country to which they come, that standards of accommodation, employment, wage rates, and living conditions generally shall be kept high. This is in marked contrast with the demands made by migration on other countries in earlier periods. It is remarkable that we in Australia, with our limited resources and remoteness from the countries whence our migrants come, should have managed so well.

The fact is that by the end of this year something approaching 700,000 new settlers will have been absorbed. This result is a tribute both to a very efficient body of public officers, who have devoted themselves enthusiastically to their job of nation building, and it is a tribute also to the good sense and warm friendliness shown by the Australian people to the new settlers, irrespective of their country of origin.

A revision of the program has become necessary both in the interests of the economy and of the migrants already here. It would not be fair to our own citizens or to potential migrants to encourage them to come immediately to Australia unless employment is assured and they have good prospects of satisfactory settlement here.

In addition to a reduced program for 1953, there will be some curtailment of intake for the remaining months of this year. While this is subject to existing commitments, action has already been taken to reduce the arrival of certain types of workers. The new program will be so drawn as to insure a balanced intake from different countries.

It is with real regret that we have felt obliged to curtail temporarily our flow. Our immigration achievements for the last 4 years have been such as to give Australia justifiable pride. Not only have we opened up a happier and better life for some hundreds of thousands of people, but the new settlers we have brought to this country have helped greatly with essential production during a period when the community's demands greatly exceeded supply.

They have provided a labor force flexible as to composition, location, and industry. They have given us the needed workers where shortages in basic industries and services were restricting prospects of expansion. Today we have coal, steel, timber, and building materials in good supply. Our railways and other essential utilities have been staffed for efficient operation. Our construction projects have been supplied with the labor to meet their requirements. Immigration has provided the workers, otherwise not available, for such defense projects as the Woomera long-range weapon scheme, the construction of service establishments, and other works of defense significance. It enabled us during the years of manpower shortage to give the seasonal rural industries the work force needed for their harvests and subsequent processing.

The fact that we now reduce our pace to consolidate our gains implies no lack of enthusiasm for continued migration, nor any slackening of our recognition of the national value from population building in terms of security, production, and cultural progress. While we can fairly claim this job has been well done, it is by no means finished. We must retain the good will of the countries with which we already have migration agreements, and we should maintain the interest of prospective migrants. They should not be made to feel that our doors are being permanently shut to them.

While in Europe and the United Kingrom over the next few weeks, I propose to explain to the governments concerned the reasons behind our latest decision. I shall discuss with them adjustments affecting them which the decision will have made necessary.

CANBERRA, *July 24, 1952.*

OCTOBER 20, 1952.

CANADIAN IMMIGRATION LAWS AND POLICIES

Legislation and administration.—Immigration to Canada is controlled by the terms of the Immigration Act and by the regulations and orders made under authority of the provisions of that act. The act is purposely flexible and does not define the classes or categories of persons admissible to Canada as immigrants. Such definitions are given in regulations made under the act by Order in Council. The act does, however, define certain prohibited classes, including persons suffering from some forms of mental or physical ailment, criminals, advocates of the use of force or violence against organized government, spies, illiterates, and others. Persons within these prohibited classes cannot be admitted to Canada as immigrants except by act of Parliament.

Under the Immigration Act and regulations, the categories of persons admissible to Canada as immigrants may be readily summarized. The first and most-favored group includes British subjects from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, New Zealand, Australia, and South Africa; citizens of Ireland; and native-born citizens of the United States and France entering Canada directly from those countries. Such persons are admissible if they can satisfy the immigration officers at the port of entry that they are in good physical and mental health; they are of good character; and they are not likely to become a public charge.

The second general category of admissible persons consists of persons who satisfy the Minister of Citizenship and Immigration that they are suitable immigrants having regard to the climatic, social, educational, industrial, labor, or other conditions or requirements of Canada; and are not undesirable owing to their peculiar customs, habits, modes of life, methods of holding property, or because of their probable inability to become readily adapted and integrated into the life of a Canadian community and to assume the duties of Canadian citizenship within a reasonable time after their entry.

Also admissible are persons who, having entered Canada as nonimmigrants, enlisted in the Canadian Armed Forces and, having served in such forces, have been honorably discharged.

With the exception of a limited number from India, Pakistan, and Ceylon, the only persons of Asiatic racial origin who are admissible to Canada are the wives and the unmarried children under 18 years of age of Canadian citizens. By agreements of 1951 with India and Pakistan, 100 persons of each country are now eligible annually for entry as immigrants. By agreement of 1952, 50 immigrants from Ceylon are eligible annually.

The responsibility for all immigration matters under the provisions of the Immigration Act rests upon the Minister of Citizenship and Immigration. The Immigration Branch, one of the four branches comprising the Department of Citizenship and Immigration, administers this act. Headquarters of the Immigration Branch is at Ottawa.

A primary objective of administration is to assist immigrants to become quickly and satisfactorily settled in the Canadian community. In the case of group movements the Canadian Government, and international organizations such as IRO and PICMME assist in preparing the immigrant for his new life prior to arrival in Canada. Upon arrival these immigrants are taken to the localities in which employment or settlement has been arranged for them, and from this point they, and of course all other immigrants who come in on their own, become primarily the responsibility of the provincial rather than the Federal authorities. However, through the work of the Settlement Service, Immigration Branch, and the Canadian Citizenship Branch of the Department of Citizenship and Immigration and the National Employment Service of the Department of Labor, the Federal Government continues its interest in them. Liaison is maintained between the Federal Government and the provincial authorities and private organizations by the Citizenship Branch with a view to coordinating the efforts in this field, filling gaps and eliminating duplication.

To ensure efficient administration and effective supervision, the Canadian Field Service staffs in Canada and overseas operate under the direction of the Commissioner of Immigration. The Canadian Field Service is made up of five districts—Atlantic, Eastern, Central, Western, and Pacific—each under the supervision of a superintendent. There are 293 ports of entry along the Canadian-United States border, and on the Atlantic and Pacific seaboards, and the admis-

sibility of every person who enters Canada is established by an immigration officer at one of these ports. The Canadian Field Service also includes inland offices located at strategic points throughout the country whose staffs investigate applications for the admission of immigrants and conduct deportation proceedings.

The Overseas Service functions very much along the same lines as its counterpart (the Canadian Field Service) in Canada. The offices abroad come under a superintendent located at London, England, who reports to the Commissioner of Immigration at Ottawa, Ontario. Immigration offices in the United Kingdom are located at London, Liverpool, Glasgow, and Belfast. To facilitate compliance with immigration medical requirements, a roster of some 500 approved British medical practitioners makes it possible for British immigrants to undergo medical examination within a short distance of their place of residence. An immigraton office is also located at Dublin, Ireland.

For the past 25 years, a system of preliminary examination of immigrants from continental Europe has been in effect. This examination is intended to establish, before they embark, the admissibility of persons wishing to settle in Canada in order to avoid the hardship that would ensue from rejection at the Canadian port of entry and subsequent deportation. At present, immigration offices are in operation at Paris, Brussels, The Hague, Stockholm, Berne, Rome, and Athens. In other cities on the continent diplomatic representatives of Canada deal with immigration matters.

The immigration problem in occupied territory, namely, Germany and Austria, is a particularly difficult one. Most of the prospective immigrants to be examined are displaced persons and refugees, a large number of whom are in camps scattered all over the occupied territories and unable to proceed to examination points. Canadian Government immigration missions are located at Karlsruhe, Germany, and Salzburg, Austria. Itinerant immigration teams have been operating from these missions since March 1947.

Policy.—In the early part of the twentieth century the Canadian policy was to increase the population rapidly through immigration. In the period 1903–14 over 100,000 immigrants entered annually. In 1911–13 over 1,100,000 immigrants were landed and settled. This large increase took place at a period when the total population was but 7,200,000 (1911).

In 1931 the applicability of the Immigration Act of 1910, as revised in 1927, was greatly limited. Immigration fell off sharply during the depression years with all general immigration prohibited. During the period 1932–35, the average number of immigrants per year was about 13,000.

In the war years, 1939–45, immigration remained prohibited except for special cases. In 1946, a new policy was adopted. That policy was one of greatly enlarged selective immigration whose goal was to enlarge Canada's population and to increase its economic capabilities. In 1947 Prime Minister Mackenzie King stated: "The government will seek by legislation, regulation, and vigorous administration to insure the careful selection and permanent settlement of such numbers of immigrants as can advantageously be absorbed in our national economy."

The Government policy since that date has been to stimulate immigration. In addition to sending immigration teams abroad, the Canadian Government has contributed toward passage money, extended repayable passage loans, and taken energetic steps to settle immigrants. In this endeavor it has been aided by the Provinces, notably Ontario which has secured jobs for immigrants and assisted them in obtaining passage.

Canadian immigration policy has continued to be selective. The Canadian Government, as stated in a Department of Citizenship and Immigration publication, "prefers the readily assimilable type—identified by race or language with one or another of the two races in Canada."

The policy has been to encourage immigration from the United Kingdom and the United States. After this group come preferred immigrants from Scandanavia, the Netherlands, and Germany as the Canadians believe that it is this group which most readily learns English. Settlers from southern and eastern Europe "while desirable from a purely economic point of view are less readily assimilated," states the publication.

Immigration each year is given a target goal. In accordance with the policy of advantageous absorbtion, the goal varies from year to year in response to economic conditions.

In 1951 Canada took in 194,000 immigrants, the highest total in 38 years. In the first 8 months of 1952, 126,023 immigrants have entered. A total of 150,000 to 160,000 for the year is expected. In both 1951 and 1952 the immigra-

tion target has been 150,000. No precise target for 1953 has been projected as yet. It is expected that the same selective process will be continued.

In addition to seeking immigrants from selected countries, Canada seeks specialized immigrants. Notable in this policy has been the large numbers of Dutch farmers which have entered Canada since April 1947 through the cooperation of the Canadian and Netherlands Governments. Experiments with the large-scale immigration of Italian farm workers have not proved successful and have been dropped.

In 1951, 114,786 of the 194,391 immigrants were workers. This number amounted to 2 percent of the Canadian labor force. Included were 33,682 skilled craftsmen, 31,407 semiskilled and unskilled workers, 25,980 farm workers, and 6,531 domestics. Present estimates indicate a comparable trend in 1952.

The Canadian policy of selective immigration has on the whole been successful. Careful attempts have been made to assimilate the immigrants and to prevent the creation of unassimilable groups such as the Doukhobors of British Columbia. Criticism arose in 1951 of the large numbers of immigrants admitted during the winter months at the peak of the seasonal unemployment period. This year the government intends to cut immigration during the winter months to prevent a repetition of both the criticism and the difficulty of placing immigrants during winter months.

Immigration, selected years

1910	286,839	1946	71,719
1915	36,665	1947	64,127
1920	138,824	1948	125,414
1925	84,907	1949	95,217
1930	104,806	1950	73,912
1935	11,476	1951	194,391
1940	11,324	1952 (8 months)	126,023
1945	22,722		

Year	Immigration by area				
	British Isles	United States	Northern Europe	Other	Total
1946	51,408	11,469	5,633	3,209	71,719
1947	38,747	9,440	5,482	10,458	64,127
1948	46,057	7,381	16,951	55,019	125,414
1949	22,201	7,744	17,439	47,833	95,217
1950	13,427	7,799	17,060	35,626	73,912
1951	31,370	7,732	71,782	92,507	[1] 194,391
1952 (7 months)	27,795		45,431	[2] 73,226	114,744

[1] Largest number admitted in 38 years, 114,786 were workers, including the following:

Skilled workers	33,682
Semiskilled and unskilled workers	31,407
Farm workers	25,980
Domestics	6,531
Total	97,600

[2] Including from United States.

Summary Notes on Immigration Laws and Policies of New Zealand

The statutes and regulations relating to the restriction of immigration into New Zealand are the following:

Immigration Restriction Act, 1908.
Immigration Restriction Amendment Act, 1910.
Immigration Restriction Amendment Act, 1920.
Immigration Restriction Amendment Act, 1923.
Finance Act (No. 3), 1944, part II.
Undesirable Immigrants Exclusion Act, 1919.
Immigration Restriction Regulations 1930, and amendments Nos. 1–3.

The Customs Department is charged with the administration of all matters coming within the scope of the immigration restriction legislation. Irrespective of nationality or race, the following classes of persons are prohibited from landing in New Zealand:

(*a*) Any idiot or insane person.

(*b*) Any person suffering from a contagious disease which is loathsome or dangerous.

(*c*) Any person arriving in New Zealand within 2 years after termination of a period of imprisonment in respect of any offense which, if committed in New Zealand, would be punishable by death or imprisonment for 2 years or upward.

(*d*) Any person who is considered by the Attorney General to be disaffected or disloyal or of such a character that his presence in New Zealand would be injurious to the peace, order, and good government of New Zealand.

(*e*) Every person of the age of 15 years or over who, on arrival, refuses or neglects to make the required declaration and who, in the case of an alien, refuses or neglects to take an oath (or make an affirmation) of obedience.

(*f*) Every person who is required to obtain a permit to enter New Zealand and who is not at the time of arrival in possession of a permit.

Traditionally, it has been the policy in New Zealand to encourage to a maximum the flow of British migrants whenever the need to expand the population of the country has arisen. Under the immigration restriction acts, persons of British birth and parentage, who are of good health, are permitted to settle in New Zealand without restriction. All other persons must first obtain a permit which may be issued or withheld at his discretion by the Minister of Immigration. In practice, no permits are granted to persons who are not of the Caucasian race. After the war it was generally felt that the country needed a larger population, and it became Government policy to stimulate the flow of immigrants.

The first step in 1946 was the decision to embark on a selective policy of assisted immigration from the United Kingdom, the policy to be developed in accordance with the needs of New Zealand. This scheme, the free and assisted passage scheme, was commenced in July 1947. It was confined initially to single British migrants between the ages of 20 and 35 years. Ex-service personnel received free fares, while civilians initially were required to contribute £10 toward the cost of their fares conditional upon an undertaking being given to remain in approved employment for a period of at least 2 years. In the first place only a limited range of most urgently essential occupations were provided for, but this scheme has been steadily widened until, for single selectees, almost any type of productive and servicing work is now covered.

For a few occupations the age level for acceptance was later reduced to 18 years of age (e. g., trainees for hospitals).

In April 1948 provision was made under the nomination scheme whereby any relative, friend, or employer could nominate for a free or assisted passage any applicant otherwise suitable and eligible for selection under the main scheme. The essential requirement is that the nominator in New Zealand must be able to guarantee that he can arrange accommodation for the nominee on arrival in New Zealand.

In May 1950, the requirement of a contribution of £10 was abolished, the position now being that free fares are granted to all selectees under this scheme. At the same time the upper age limit for eligibility was lifted from 35 to 45 years of age; thirdly, provision was made for extending free passages to certain categories of married British migrants with up to two children; these categories included mainly building and construction workers and other allied tradesmen, and, in addition, other essential productive and servicing workers nominated by friends, relatives, or employers in New Zealand who can arrange accommodation on arrival.

From its inception in 1947 to June 30, 1951, 9,049 persons have arrived in New Zealand under the free (and assisted) passage scheme for British migrants. These comprise 5,214 males and 3,287 females and, in addition, as dependents, 239 wives and 309 children.

In addition to the assisted passage scheme, the New Zealand Government has allocated berths from the available immigration quota on passenger ships from the United Kingdom to a number of selected British migrants who pay their own passages to New Zealand. All adults (other than wives) in such cases have engaged in skilled essential work and are required to have accommodation assured to them before embarkation.

Up to June 30, 1951, 5,580 men and women and children arrived in New Zealand under such sponsored passages.

Child migration scheme

Under this scheme, British children between the ages of 5 and 17 years whose parents or guardians wish them to have the opportunities which New Zealand can offer, are eligible for free passages. The children are placed with foster parents approved by the Superintendent of Child Welfare in New Zealand.

The first group arrived in New Zealand in June 1949. To June 30, 1951, 281 such children had arrived.

European settlers from displaced-persons camps in Europe

A further aspect of New Zealand's immigration policy was its agreement after the war to take a number of European settlers from displaced-persons camps in Europe. The first draft of 941 settlers arrived in June 1949, the second, numbering 951, in October 1950, the third, of 890, in May 1951, a fourth draft, comprising 912 settlers arrived during August 1951, and a final draft of 500 toward the end of 1951. Apart from the above, persons in New Zealand may nominate friends and relatives remaining in displaced-persons camps for passages to New Zealand; the persons nominating in New Zealand are, in fact, in many cases former displaced persons who have become new settlers. Several small drafts have already arrived in New Zealand under this latter scheme.

The Dutch migration scheme

A migration agreement between the Netherlands and New Zealand Governments was concluded in October 1950. In terms of this agreement, up to 2,000 persons will be accepted as new settlers in any 1 year—1,200 male and 800 female workers. To be eligible, applicants must be unmarried persons who have attained the age of 18 years, but not reached 36 years of age at the time of application.

Target goals for assisted immigration

The target set for assisted immigration was 7,500 persons per annum for 1951 and 1952 with the intention that it should thereafter be raised to 10,000 persons per annum. The 7,500 rate was computed on the following expectation of yield:

(i) 2,000 single persons from the United Kingdom.

(ii) 1,000 families from the United Kingdom, totaling 3,500 persons.

(iii) 2,000 non-British persons from friendly western countries, principally Holland.

It was announced last month, however, that New Zealand is to reduce her quota of English and Dutch immigrants next year, as a result of shipping difficulties and inadequate housing. The number of assisted British settlers will be reduced from 7,500 to 5,000, and the number of assisted Dutch immigrants will be cut down to 1,500. Preference will be given to skilled workers.

The Minister of Immigration, Mr. Sullivan, said the reduction in the Dutch immigration program has been made necessary largely because too high a proportion of Dutch settlers have been in the unskilled group, for whom there are fewer opportunities at present. Mr. Sullivan said it is proposed, therefore, to restrict the selection of Dutch settlers under the assisted-passage scheme to single men who are fully experienced farm workers, or skilled building or engineering tradesmen, and to single women and a small number of unskilled workers. Entry permits will be granted to the same number of unassisted Dutch immigrants, who come into the same occupational groups.

Welfare

The welfare of all immigrants, whether British or European, is believed to receive every consideration by the Government. The Department of Labor and Employment, which is concerned with all administration arising from immigration matters, has 25 district offices throughout the Dominion. Its officers are available at all times to advise new settlers on any problems which may arise.

Immigration welfare committees

These have been set up in all of the above 25 centers, the function of the committees being the coordination of welfare activities in respect of all new settlers. The committees are nongovernmental, while various organizations affiliated to the National Council of Women are represented on them. These committees take an active interest in welfare matters.

Protection of interests

The interests of all immigrants are protected in that they are allowed the same rights, privileges, wage rates, etc. (subject to certain residential qualifications), as are full citizens.

Figures for permanent arrivals and permanent departures in each of the past 10 years are given in the annex. The present population of New Zealand was reported a few weeks ago to have passed the figure of 2,000,000.

Sources: Official New Zealand Yearbook and other official publications.

Arrivals and departures, immigrants intending permanent residence, and New Zealand residents departing permanently

Country of last permanent residence, or of destination	March year											
	1941–42	1942–43	1943–44	1944–45	1945–46	1946–47	1947–48	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	April 1952
Arrivals:												
United Kingdom	177	99	78	615	2,001	4,863	6,300	7,144	10,128	9,675	11,454	1,073
Union of South Africa	3	6	6	24	68	116	54	66	140	120	170	4
Republic of India [1]	41	5	21	20	70	210	594	698	527	455	302	12
Canada	9	3	6	69	361	158	82	148	259	317	271	54
Australia	364	249	357	666	1,281	1,746	1,429	1,279	2,478	2,830	3,260	395
Commonwealth countries in the Pacific [2]	206	322	199	213	343	375	380	480	819	922	1,073	83
Other Commonwealth countries [2]	87	74	20	21	66	68	136	203	382	341	390	21
Total Commonwealth countries [2]	887	758	687	1,628	4,190	7,536	8,975	10,018	14,733	14,660	16,920	1,642
United States of America	33	56	10	12	189	195	202	272	397	453	337	44
All other countries	142	43	51	64	266	370	471	1,097	2,571	3,121	7,665	201
Not specified						5						
Grand total	1,062	857	748	1,704	4,645	8,106	9,648	11,387	17,701	18,234	24,922	1,887
Net increase	−543	−67	−731	−688	10	2,055	3,879	4,708	10,815	10,446	17,622	1,390
Departures:												
United Kingdom	153	183	345	495	1,204	1,765	1,905	1,857	2,309	2,737	2,870	163
Union of South Africa	9	5	14	18	22	143	104	122	84	56	84	
Republic of India [1]	51	7	17	28	165	129	150	113	81	99	81	
Canada	36	5	16	45	31	170	280	347	187	213	234	4
Australia	1,046	413	652	921	1,609	1,703	1,797	2,700	3,029	3,496	2,815	229
Commonwealth countries in the Pacific [2]	168	249	291	320	454	557	531	575	536	557	591	57
Other Commonwealth countries [2]	31	4	12	11	86	293	131	151	103	123	141	19
Total Commonwealth countries [2]	1,494	866	1,347	1,838	3,571	4,780	4,898	5,865	6,329	7,281	6,816	480
United States of America	55	49	105	518	924	920	373	359	353	273	297	6
All other countries	56	7	27	36	138	351	498	455	204	234	187	11
Not specified		2			2							
Grand total	1,605	924	1,479	2,392	4,635	6,051	5,769	6,679	6,886	7,788	7,300	497

[1] Includes Pakistan for years 1940–41 to 1947–48.
[2] Including protected states and trust territories.

Adapted from Abstract of Statistics, July 31, 1952.

Notes on South African Immigration Laws and Policies

By the Immigrants Regulation Act, No. 22 of 1913, as amended, the Immigration Department of the Union is empowered to regulate the entry of immigrants, and certain classes of persons denominated prohibited may be excluded or even extruded from the country; or their residence may be circumscribed as to time and in other respects. Among such classes are persons who have been convicted of serious crime; persons of ill fame; persons who are insane; diseased, including those suffering from tuberculosis, or are otherwise physically afflicted; persons likely to become a public charge, and in some cases illiterate persons. The Minister of Interior is empowered also to deem as prohibited immigrants persons, or classes of persons, whose presence for economic or certain other reasons is considered undesirable. Under this authority, Asiatics, with the exception of wives and children of domiciled relatives, are prohibited from entering the Union.

Under the Aliens Act, No. 1 of 1937, no alien may enter the Union unless he is in possession of a permit to enter for either permanent or temporary residence. By alien is meant a person who is not a natural-born British subject or a Union national.

Applications for permanent residence must have attached photographs, medical and police reports, and documentary evidence of good character, employment during the past 5 years, and financial circumstances.

An Immigrants Selection Board examines each application and authorizes or refuses the issue of a permit for permanent residence. The act lays down that the Board shall not authorize the issue of a permit unless the applicant is of good character, likely to become readily assimiliated with the European inhabitants within a reasonable time of his entry, is not likely to be harmful to the welfare of the Union, and does not, or is not likely to pursue an occupation which, in the Board's opinion, is already overcrowded. The Board may also authorize the issue of permits to the wife, and any minor children, or the aged or destitute parents or grandparents of an alien permanently or lawfully resident.

An alien who desires to be admitted temporarily must furnish full reasons for the visit, produce such credentials as he possesses to support his request, hold a valid passport or other recognized travel document, the validity of which will not expire during the period of temporary residence, and, if necessary, provide a recent photograph. A temporary permit is issued gratis, but the immigration officer may, in his discretion, demand a deposit up to £100 as security for compliance with the terms of the permit.

The Minister has discretion to waive the requirements of the act in regard to distinguished aliens desiring to visit the Union, providing they do not enter for permanent residence.

From information received from the South African Embassy, it appears that the laws and policies are effective in carrying out the purposes desired.

Immigration into the Union of South Africa (permanent residence)

	Total		British	Netherlands	Germany	Other
	White	Non-European				
1945	2,329	620	2,071	8	11	239
1946	11,256	774	9,917	279	57	1,003
1947	28,841	988	24,783	972	216	2,870
1948	35,631	1,003	25,500	2,753	12	7,276
1949	14,780	796	9,655	1,320	14	3,791
1950	12,803	860	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
1951	15,243	610	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)

[1] Not available.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
November 3, 1952.

MR. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington.

DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: I refer to my letter of October 23 concerning the information desired by the Commission with respect to the immigration laws and policies of the United Kingdom, Kenya, and Tanganyika, Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the Union of South Africa. The information concerning Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the Union of South Africa was transmitted with my earlier letter.

The Department has now received from the American Embassy at London the information concerning the United Kingdom, Kenya and Tanganyika, Northern Rhodesia, and Southern Rhodesia, and I take pleasure in transmitting it to you herewith. The information is contained in despatch No. 1999 of October 28 from the Embassy, together with enclosures.

Sincerely yours,

ANDREW B. FOSTER,
Deputy Director, Office of British Commonwealth and Northern European Affairs.

UNITED KINGDOM

(NOTE.—Immigration to the United Kingdom is controlled by laws which allow wide areas of discretion to the Secretary of State for the Home Department and the officials within his Department. Consequently, immigration is to a large extent controlled by administration rather than detailed legislation.)

1. IMMIGRATION LAWS AND FEATURES OF BASIC POLICIES

1. Legislation

Immigration to the United Kingdom is regulated in accordance with the Aliens Order, 1920, as amended and by restriction orders and directions as ordered by the Secretary of State for the Home Department and by rules of summary jurisdiction. The Aliens Order, 1920, contains the basic law regulating the entry of aliens into Great Britain and their conditions of stay. The restriction orders and directions supplement the aliens order and permit special exceptions such as that referring to the Polish resettlement forces. The rules of summary jurisdiction concern deportation proceeding against paupered or convicted aliens.

The bulk of immigration proceedings is carried on under administrative rules and regulations set up by the Home Office in accordance with the aliens order.

British subjects, Commonwealth citizens and British protected persons are not subject to the aliens order.

2. Visa procedures

British subjects and subjects of certain countries with which reciprocal arrangements have been made do not require a visa on their passport for entry into the United Kingdom. Other persons acquire visas from a British consul or passport-control officer in British missions abroad. Issuance of visas is controlled through the passport control office, a section of the Foreign Office. The Passport Control Office actually serves as an agent of the Home Office and the regulations governing the issuance of visas are in conformity with immigration regulations, the latter being definitive as far as entry into the United Kingdom is concerned.

3. Provisions of the Aliens Order, 1920 (summarized)

Aliens coming to the United Kingdom shall not land, unless seamen, without the leave of an immigration officer nor at other than an approved port.

Leave to land in the United Kingdom is not granted an alien unless—

(*a*) He can support himself and his dependents.

(*b*) If proposing to enter employment, he has permission from the Minister of Labor.

(*c*) He is not of unsound mind or a mental defective.

(*d*) He is not certified by a medical inspector as undesirable on medical grounds.

(*e*) He has not been sentenced abroad for an extraditable crime.

(*f*) He is not the subject of a deportation order or expulsion order.

(*g*) He has not been prohibited from landing by the Home Secretary.

(*h*) He fulfills other requirements prescribed by general or special instructions of the Home Secretary.

An immigration officer may attach such conditions as he may think fit to the grant of leave to land. The Home Secretary may vary such conditions in such manner as he thinks fit.

An alien landing in contravention to the order shall be removed from the United Kingdom by the master of the ship in which he arrived or by the owners or agents of that ship or on any ship belonging to the same owners to the country of which he is a national or from which he embarked.

Every alien must register with the registration officer in the district in which he resides.

The Home Secretary may exempt any person or class of persons conditionally or unconditionally from all or any provisions of this order.

Nothing in the order applies to the accredited head of a foreign diplomatic mission, any member of his household or of his official staff.

A court may recommend a deportation order for—

(*a*) Any offense where the court has power to impose imprisonment without option of a fine.

(*b*) Offenses under particular provisions of the Metropolitan Police Act or the Town Police Clauses Act (such as common prostitute, night walker, solicitor, etc.).

4. Immigration Procedure[1]

As is indicated in the summary of the aliens order given above, the Immigration Office, acting under the direction of the Home Secretary, has very wide power and discretion. No person can enter the United Kingdom without the permission of an immigration officer. British subjects (and Commonwealth citizens) need, however, only satisfy the immigration officer that they are British.

An alien, before landing in the United Kingdom, fills in a landing card which lists the port of embarkation, alien's name, occupation, birth date, birthplace, sex, nationality, birth nationality, number of passport, and date and place of issue and proposed address of the alien in the United Kingdom. On the back of the card, the immigration officer indicates the category of the alien (visitor, business visitor, student, employee, etc.), the date of landing and any other pertinent information. The landing card is filed in the traffic index of the Aliens Department of the Home Office. (When an alien departs from the United Kingdom, he must fill out an embarkation card containing the same information which is then returned to the traffic index to be matched up with the landing card. Thus the traffic index contains a record of all aliens in the country.)

The immigration officer deals generally with individuals rather than categories. The ordinary visitor (business or pleasure) must have a passport and a visa, if necessary, must comply with the requirements of the aliens order and must be qualified under any administrative rules and regulations imposed by the Home Secretary. A visitor usually receives permission to land for 3 months, but the duration of stay can be increased where warranted. A person in transit would normally be treated as an ordinary visitor, but might be admitted only on condition of transit. A person coming to the United Kingdom to take up employment must have a position, which would depend upon the issuance of a work permit from the Minister of Labor. Such an employee would usually be granted leave to land for a period of 12 months, but extension can be granted by the Home Office. In certain cases, permission to land may be limited to a period of 1 month during which time the case would be referred to the Home Office.

Certain categories of people are permitted to land with the waiving of normal conditions in accordance with orders of the Home Office. Such categories include dependents and distressed relatives of British subjects, EVW's (European Voluntary Workers), distressed people from Austria and Germany (under the 2,000 Scheme), Italian miners (under the plan to recruit foreign labor for the coal mines), brick makers, tin plate workers, etc.

[1] Source of information largely Mr. S. J. Coombes, H. M. senior immigration officer, Aliens Department, Home Office, London.

Seamen are generally excepted from the provisions of the aliens order except that the master of a ship must deliver to the nearest immigration office within 12 hours of arrival a crew list which will be cleared by the immigration officer after he has determined that the list contains no one whom he would not wish to land. The form for the crew list shows the name, rating, birth date, nationality, date and place of first signing on of crew members and pertinent data concerning the ship. When the crew list is cleared by the immigration officer, the crew is automatically entitled to shore leave. If a seaman should apply for discharge, then his seaman's book would be demanded and used as a passport. The Immigration Service controlled in 1951 about 1 million seamen of whom about 900,000 were aliens.

After an alien has legally entered the United Kingdom, he ceases to be a concern of the Immigration Department and becomes the concern of the Aliens Department. If a visitor or businessman wishes to extend the period of time he may stay in the country beyond the limitations imposed by the immigration officer, he can apply to the Aliens Department for an extension. Likewise, an employee can apply for an extension, providing he has a work permit from the Ministry of Labor. After an alien has been in the country for 5 years, the Home Office as a rule cancels on application any conditions attached to the alien's being here and he becomes a legal resident.

An alien is qualified for naturalization if he—

(*a*) Has resided in the United Kingdom or been in the service of the Crown for 12 months immediately prior to his application; and

(*b*) Has during the 7 years prior to his application, resided in the United Kingdom or been in the service of the Crown for at least 4 years; and

(*c*) Has a good character; and

(*d*) Has a sufficient knowledge of English; and

(*e*) Intends to reside in the United Kingdom or its dominions or to continue in the service of the Crown.

The Home Secretary has, however, absolute discretion in granting naturalization and need give no reason for his refusal.

II. EFFECTIVENESS OF LAWS AND POLICIES

The laws and procedures indicate such a wide degree of power and discretion left in the hands of the immigration officers and the Home Secretary that the effectiveness of the policies is a measure more of the quality of the administration than of the quality of the legislation. Under section 1 (1) (a) of the Aliens Order, 1920, "an alien * * * shall not land in the United Kingdom without the leave of an immigration officer * * *." Under section 14 of the act, "The Home Secretary may direct that any person or class of persons shall be exempt either unconditionally or subject to such conditions as the Home Secretary may impose from all or any of the provisions of this order." Thus discretion as to entry within the United Kingdom can be utilized to implement swiftly any new policies decided upon by the Government.

Immigration officers feel that the law is effective and that able administration has resulted in adequate control of immigration. When special classes of immigrants are needed in Great Britain (such as miners, tin-plate workers, etc.), relaxation of disqualifying provisions of the aliens order can easily be achieved by executive action of the home secretary. Not only speed but also flexibility in amending policy is thereby achieved.

The provision requiring a permit from the Ministry of Labor for alien employees enables simple control of competition from foreign labor on the British labor market.

III. STATISTICAL DATA

The British Government ceased the publication of statistics concerning immigration during the war as a security measure. However, statistical data since the war is now being assembled and will shortly be published as a command

paper. The following statistics are unofficial and taken from tables prepared for a recent conference of immigration officers:

Whole traffic for the year ending September 1952

	British passengers		Alien passengers	
	Landed	Embarked	Landed	Embarked
By air	1,654,134	429,926	262,226	260,897
By sea	1,226,904	1,306,444	548,880	545,599
Total	2,881,038	1,736,370	811,106	806,496

For the year ending September 1952—

Immigrants (people accepted for period over 12 months with probability of settling):

Male	3,015
Female	9,311
Children	8,259
Total	20,585

Holders of Ministry of Labor permits good for 12 months or more (a proportion may settle in the country):

Male	4,467
Female	13,070
Children	86
Total	17,623
Grand total	38,208

KENYA AND TANGANYIKA

(NOTE.—Immigration laws and policies for all of the East African territories, which include Kenya and Tanganyika, are similar or identical so that the following remarks do not differentiate between colonies although the information is based on Kenya.)

I. IMMIGRATION LAWS AND FEATURES OF BASIC POLICIES

1. Legislation

"Since the war the * * * Kenya and Tanganyika * * * Legislative Councils have passed immigration (control) ordinances under which immigrants are classified according to the nature of their employment or the purpose for which they wish to enter the country. Before being given permission to enter any territory, immigrants must apply to an appropriate authority appointed by the Government and must obtain a certificate of eligibility. The principle on which the control is based is that the entry of the immigrant in question is in the general interests of the territory. Provision is of course made for temporary permits for visitors."[1]

The immigration (control) ordinances for East Africa were passed by the Legislative Councils and put into effect on August 1, 1948. The ordinances do not apply to indigenous Africans, that is, members of native tribes, who are free to travel at their will in the territories. Native Africans who come from the adjacent territories of Portuguese East Africa, Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland and Ruanda-Urandi do not require passes to enter the territories.

The immigration (control) ordinances make no distinction as to the nationality of immigrants with the exception of ex-enemy aliens (such as Germans) who are subject to special restrictions. There are no quotas or statutory limits to the number of immigrants who may enter in one year.

[1] The British Territories in East and Central Africa, 1945 50, House of Commons, Command Paper No. 7987, p. 125.

Entry to the territories requires, as a prerequisite to compliance with the immigration (control) ordinances, presentation of a passport properly visaed (*see* par. I 4j below). British subjects and subjects of certain countries with whom reciprocal arrangements are in effect require no visas. Subjects of other countries require a visa which is issued by a British consul or a passport control officer. Visa issuing officers are under the control of the Passport Control Office of the Foreign Office. This office maintains liaison with the Home Office, authorizes its officers to issue visas and follows policies laid down by the Home Office. The regulations governing the issuance of a visa are in conformity with immigration regulations, the latter being the definitive factor in entry to the territories.

2. Operation of the ordinances

The issuance of any pass is within the discretion of the Immigration Department, which is, of course, responsible to the governor of the territory. Applications for permanent immigration are presented before the Immigration Board which meets monthly. This board has about 10 members, government officials, members of the Legislative Council and local business and professional men.

3. Qualifications for immigration

Legal entry into the territories is effected by four kinds of certification: Re-entry pass, visitor's pass, temporary employment pass, and entry permit.

(*a*) *Re-entry pass.*—A re-entry pass is automatically issued upon application to any legal resident. A legal resident is any resident who has maintained legal residency during a period of 5 years.

(*b*) *Visitor's pass.*—A visitor's pass is issued to any person who possesses a valid passport or travel document properly visaed and who—

(1) Promises not to take up employment in East Africa without permission of the principal immigration officer

(2) Has made satisfactory arrangements for travel out of the territory (transportation tickets, etc.) or

(3) Can satisfy the issuing authority that sufficient funds are possessed (£100 per person and £50 for children under 12)

(4) Would not, by his entry, act to the prejudice of the inhabitants of the colony generally

(5) Does not come within the classes of persons generally excluded by the ordinance.

Visitors' passes are valid for 6 months and may be renewed for two periods of the same duration.

(*c*) *Temporary employment pass.*—A temporary employment pass is applied for by the prospective employer who states the nature of employment offered, gives guaranties as to support of the employee, describes the qualifications of the employee and the emoluments offered. The employee is subject to the general provisions of the ordinance.

The application for a temporary employment pass is made to the Immigration Office which then consults with the Department of Labor to determine that the interests of the local population generally would not be prejudiced by issuance of the pass, that the prospective employee is in fact qualified, and that there is not already unemployment in the trade, skill, or calling involved.

The employer undertakes that the employee will be engaged in the employment unless or until the principal officer gives permission for the employee to leave or to work for another employer.

A temporary employment pass is valid for 4 years. (The 4-year period is to enable the immigration authorities to send the employee out of the territory in case unemployment in the pertinent trade occurs. If the employee could remain 5 years, he would then become a legal resident and the authorities would not have power so to regulate the labor market.)

A temporary employment pass can include dependents (wife and children under 18) if the employee can show means of supporting them and that adequate housing is available.

(*d*) *Entry permit.*—

(NOTE.—Usual practice for prospective immigrants is to obtain a visitor's pass, enter the territory and then apply in the territory for the entry permit which enables permanent immigrant status.)

Entry permits are issued by the principal immigration officer after being assured that the applicant comes within the purview of the ordinance and after receiving a certificate of acceptance from the Immigration Control Board (*See* par. I (2)).

Entry permits are issued to the following classes with the qualifications noted: [2]

Class A—

(1) A permanent resident.

(2) A resident of one of the other East African territories or the child of such (residency being at the time of the coming into operation of this ordinance.)

(3) A person in the service of the Colonial Government, East Africa High Commission or the Kenya and Uganda Railways and Harbours Administration.

Class B—Agriculturalist or animal husbandryman who has certified that he has—

(1) acquired or can acquire land of suitable area for his business.

(2) at his disposal sum of £2,000 or lesser amount as determined by prescribed authority.

Class C—Prospector or miner who has certified that he has—

(1) prospecting rights to enable mining.

(2) at his disposal sum of £2,000 or lesser amount as determined by prescribed authority.

Class D—Tradesman or businessman who has certified that he has—

(1) the license required for carrying on his trade or business.

(2) £2,000 at his disposal or lesser amount as determined by prescribed authority.

Class E—Manufacturer who has certified that he has—

(1) the license required for carrying on such manufacturing.

(2) at his disposal sum of £5,000 or lesser amount as determined by prescribed authority.

Class F—Member of prescribed profession who—

(1) possesses prescribed qualifications (comparable to British standards).

(2) has sufficient capital or income to initiate practice.

Class G—A person who has been offered and accepted employment not of temporary nature and has prescribed certificate.

Class H—A person who has an assured income of prescribed amount. (This is usually fixed at £500 per annum.)

(NOTE.—Capital sums listed are maximums. The Immigration Board reduces the requirements as the particulars of each case may permit.)

All of the above classes are subject to the qualification that the activity followed by the immigrant "will not be to the prejudice of the inhabitants generally of the colony." Additionally there is provision that all of the immigrants in the above classes (except permanent residents, residents in 1948 of other East African territories and residents with assured incomes) may be ordered to leave the colony within 4 years if they fail to fulfill the qualifications on their original entry permits. There is also provision for appeal against decisions of the immigration authorities to a prescribed tribunal or to the Supreme Court. Entry permits may include the dependents of the applicant (wife and children under 18).

4. General provisions of the immigration (control) ordinance

In addition to the qualifications as noted in the preceding paragraphs, there is prohibition applied to the immigration of any one of the following:

(*a*) Destitute persons.

(*b*) Mental defectives.

(*c*) Persons suffering from a contagious or infectious disease.

(*d*) Persons, not pardoned, convicted of murder or sentenced to prison for any term, if the Governor deems the circumstances to indicate that the applicant is an undesirable immigrant. Exception is made for offenses of a political character.

(*e*) Prostitutes or pimps.

(*f*) Persons deemed by the principal immigration officer, on the basis of reliable information received, to be undesirable immigrants.

(*g*) Persons under order of deportation.

(*h*) Persons whose entry into the colony was or is illegal.

(*i*) Children, if under 18, of prohibited immigrants.

(*j*) Persons not possessing a valid passport or travel document properly endorsed and visaed.

Additionally, holders of entry permits may be required to make a deposit of up to £150 at their entry at the discretion of the immigration officer.

[2] As excerpted from sec. 7 of the Immigration (control) ordinance, 1948, Kenya.

The following persons are generally exempt from the immigration rules and regulations:

(*a*) Serving members of Her Majesty's forces, their wives and children.

(*b*) Accredited representatives of any government within the British Empire, their wives and children and staff.

(*c*) Accredited members of diplomatic or consular corps of recognized countries, their wives, children, and staff.

(*d*) Permanent residents holding valid reentry permits.

(*e*) Persons in the service of the government of the Colony or the Kenya and Uganda Railways and Harbors Administration.

There is no mention made in the Immigration (Control) Ordinance of merchant seamen. They are subject to other regulations (visaing of crew lists, regulations comparable to United Kingdom rules). The B. S. I. C. (British seaman's identification card) is accepted as a passport. Passengers on through ships and aircraft do not require passes, and the same rule applies to crews.

II. EFFECTIVENESS OF LAWS AND POLICIES [3]

The regulations as summarized indicate that no appreciable attempt is made to control the immigration into the East African territories of indigenous, native people. Control of non-African immigration is aimed at (1) the importation of development capital, (2) the importation of skilled labor in specified fields, (3) the importation of agricultural skill and capital, (4) the importation of professional talent, (5) the importation of manufacturing skill and capital, (6) the development of mining resources, etc.

The Immigration (Control) Ordinance, while it does in fact specify particular categories, grants such wide and extensive authority to the principal immigration officer and the Immigration Control Board that immigration is actually more regulated by administration than by law.

This method of regulating immigration by administration is in general conformity with the practice in the United Kingdom. Since the restrictive clause "not to the prejudice of the inhabitants generally of the Colony" applies to all classes of immigrants, the Immigration Board, immigration officers, or the Governor may, in effect, ban any immigrant. Conversely, when it has been decided that the economic or social welfare of the Colony will be benefited thereby, requirements can be administratively relaxed for desired immigrants.

It is apparent that recent policy tends toward greater restriction of immigration since the maximum capital requirements for farmers, miners, and businessmen have been raised since 1948 from £800 to £2,000, and for manufacturers from £2,500 to £5,000.

As to the effectiveness of the laws in achieving the policy ends envisioned, the authtorities consulted indicate satisfaction with the laws while pointing out that the general scope of the law is such as to allow fast and effective changes in administration which can readily accommodate changes in policy.

III. STATISTICAL DATA

(NOTE.—Accurate and complete statistical data does not seem to exist. It was emphasized that the nature of the Colonies is such that borders cannot be carefully sealed and that the statistics probably indicate less than actual amounts. More complete and detailed statistics could be obtained from the Central African Office of Statistics in Nairobi. Except for Kenya, statistical data before 1949 is not available.)

TABLE 1.—*Nonnative (non-African) population* [1]

Year	Kenya	Tanganyika
1948	157,528	70,160
1952	Not available	95,494

[1] Source of tables 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5: *East African Economic and Statistical Bulletin*, No. 16, June 1952, East Africa High Commission.

[3] Information largely based on discussion with East African Immigration Officer Drake, London, formerly Immigration Service, Kenya.

TABLE 2.—*Migration: East African territories, year of 1952*

Category	Kenya	Tanganyika
Total immigration (includes visitors)	44,887	15,534
Total emigration (includes visitors)	29,607	(1)
New permanent immigrants (excludes visitors and transits)	7,690	7,108
Permanent emigrants (excludes visitors and transits)	1,182	(1)
(*a*) Visitors on business or holiday	5,929	2,486
(*b*) Persons in transit	16,584	1,131
(*c*) Other visitors	1,542	100
Total (*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	24,055	3,717

[1] Not available.

NOTE.—The fact that the number of visitors added to the number of immigrants does not equal total immigration is due to returning residents who are not indicated in the first two groups.

TABLE 3.—*Migration: Kenya*

Year	Total reported immigration [1]	Total reported emigration [1]	Permanent immigration
1951	58,976	42,586	8,000
1950	44,887	29,603	7,690
1949	44,116	30,452	11,956
1948	48,660	25,608	12,328
1947	46,420	23,854	9,832
1946	35,078	21,632	6,549
1945	27,455	19,914	
1944	21,312	14,371	

[1] Includes all who entered and left the territory—visitors, transits, etc.

NOTE.—"Permanent immigration" plus "Total reported emigration" do not add to "Total reported immigration" since the latter includes returning residents.

TABLE 4.—*Migration: Tanganyika*

Year	Total immigration	Visitors and transits	New permanent immigration
1951	16,346	5,115	5,532
1950	15,534	3,717	7,108
1949	20,415	8,155	7,756

NOTE.—Earlier figures not available.

TABLE 5.—*Total population (estimated), 1952* [1]

Kenya	5,500,000
Tanganyika	7,500,000

[1] Estimate by Mr. Drake based on corrected 1948 figures.

NORTHERN RHODESIA

(NOTE.—Northern Rhodesia is a large land in area with a small non-African population of about 40,000. Border control is difficult, so that migration statistics are approximate. The administration of the law reflects the small-community nature of the land; immigration is handled largely on an individual basis.)

I. IMMIGRATION LAWS AND FEATURES OF BASIC POLICIES

1. Legislation

The Immigration Ordinance[1] as supplemented by the orders of the governor in council contains the basic law concerning immigration. The following are prohibited immigrants:

(*a*) Those whom the governor, on economic grounds or because of standards or habits of life, deems to be undesirable;

(*b*) Those unable to read any European language, including Yiddish;

(*c*) Those likely to become a public charge because of infirmity of body or reason or those unable to show possession of sufficient means of support;

(*d*) Those deemed by the governor to be undesirable on the basis of information received from any government, British or foreign, through official or diplomatic channels;

(*e*) Prostitutes and procurers;

(*f*) Those convicted of serious crimes;

(*g*) Idiots, epileptics, insane or mentally deficient people, those deaf and dumb or deaf and blind or blind and dumb, etc.;

(*h*) Lepers or those afflicted with a contagious or loathsome disease.

Anyone over 16 must have a passport or valid travel document and fulfill other special requirements prescribed by general or special instructions of the governor. With the exception of nationals from Denmark, Iceland, Italy, Luxemburg, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, the Netherlands, San Marino, and Liechtenstein, aliens (those not British subjects) are required to obtain a visa from a British consul or passport authority before beginning their journey to Northern Rhodesia.[2]

The Governor of the Colony has the power to exempt any person or classes of persons from provisions of the law. If an immigration officer refuses entry into Northern Rhodesia to any person, he must present the grounds for the refusal in writing to that person, and the person has the right to appeal the decision in the appropriate court.

The following persons are not prohibited immigrants under the ordinance:

(*a*) Members of Her Majesty's forces;

(*b*) Duly accredited British or foreign officials, their wives, children, staff, or servants;

(*c*) Persons entitled to legal entry;

(*d*) Children of residents of the Colony;

(*e*) Legal residents;

(*f*) Persons of European descent who are skilled agricultural workers or domestic servants, skilled artisans, mechanics, workmen, or miners, and whom the Governor shall deem desirable to admit under approved conditions, providing each has a certificate of employment.

2. Immigration procedure

Immigration is controlled by the chief immigration officer and his staff under the direction of the Governor in accordance with the ordinance. No entry permit as such is required, but the immigrant must have passport, visa if required, and such evidence, documentary or otherwise, as will satisfy the immigration officer that the intended immigration conforms to the laws and regulations. There are three main categories of entrants: temporary visitors, employees, and settlers.

Temporary visitors are required to produce evidence that they have permanent residence or employment outside the territory, that they have sufficient means to maintain themselves during the visit, and that they intend to return to their permanent residence.

Employees must produce evidence that bona fide employment awaits them in the territory with an employer of repute, at an adequate salary, for a period of not less than 6 months. They must produce at the time of entry a letter or contract as evidence of the work and pay. It is customary for the employer to make the initial contact with the immigration officer in Rhodesia, to furnish details of the employment and of the prospective employee, and to obtain tentative approval of the immigration involved. (Actually the copper mines, the major industry, recruit employees in London and make most of the arrangements for immigration on behalf of the employee with the Rhodesian authorities.)

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[1] Ch. 33 of the laws (Northern Rhodesia), 1948 edition, Lusaka.

[2] See par. I.2 of report on the United Kingdom.

Settlers, those seeking permanent immigrant status, intending to set up in business or agriculture, etc., with their own capital, communicate directly with the chief immigration officer and give full information about themselves, their qualifications such as financial resources, skills and experiences, etc. Such applications are considered individually on the basis of whether the prospective immigration will benefit the Colony generally. (A single man possessing the requisite general qualifications would probably be required to hold a capital sum of £150 at the time of his entry. This would give him £50 to live on for a month or so and enough money to pay his return fare if he found no satisfactory position.)

The usual medical qualifications are required of all immigrants, freedom from tuberculosis, inoculation against smallpox and yellow fever, etc.

Immigration rules and procedures apply only to nonnatives. There is no control of the native migration. There are no quotas nor any restrictions concerning nationality of potential immigrants other than such bars to entry as might be administratively imposed.

Domicile in Northern Rhodesia is acquired after 3 years' residence and naturalization, in accord with the British Nationality Act of 1948, can be achieved by aliens if they have, during the previous 12 months resided in Northern Rhodesia or been in Crown service and, during the previous 7 years resided in Northern Rhodesia during an aggregate of 4 years or been in Crown service for that period. The other qualifications of the Nationality Act,[3] of course, apply.

II. EFFECTIVENESS OF LAWS AND POLICIES[4]

Since the laws of Northern Rhodesia give wide powers to the governor and he, in turn, allows wide discretion to his immigration officers, the effectiveness of policy is determined by administration rather than legislation. In 6 years, the non-African population has increased from about 18,000 to about 38,000 and permanent immigrants have recently been entering at the rate of about 600 per month. The large majority of these are employees recruited by and for the copper mines. The white population in 1918 was about 3,000.

While recent population growth has been relatively very large, the country is physically well capable of absorption of skilled workers and settlers, so that generally little control (except over personal qualifications such as health, character, etc.) is exercised. Such control as is exercised cannot be completely effective due to the length of the borders, the wilderness of the territory, etc.

Officials feel that the laws are effective in keeping out of the territory undesirable immigrants while the scope allowed by the laws for administrative control permits effective implementation of policy laid down by the governor in council.

III. STATISTICAL DATA

(Note.—Statistics are probably not completely accurate. No statistics on emigration are available.)

TABLE 1.[1]—*Immigrants by sex*

Year	Male	Female	Children under 16	Total
1944	634	591	419	1,644
1945	1,169	769	606	2,544
1946	1,821	1,270	906	3,997
1947	2,183	1,407	1,028	4,618
1948	2,560	1,721	1,235	5,516
1949	3,120	1,917	1,496	6,533

[1] The Northern Rhodesia Handbook, 1951, Government Printer, Lusaka, pp. 43 and 44.

[3] See par. I.4 of report on the United Kingdom.

[4] Source largely the Deputy Commissioner for Northern Rhodesia, Col. J. Kiggell, London.

TABLE 2.[1]—*Immigrants by origin*

Year	Union of South Africa	United Kingdom	All other	Total
1944	1,109	248	287	1,644
1945	1,719	269	556	2,544
1946	2,221	974	802	3,997
1947	2,361	1,446	811	4,618
1948	2,392	1,990	1,134	5,516
1949	3,146	2,197	1,190	6,533

[1] The Northern Rhodesia Handbook, 1951, Government Printer, Lusaka, pp. 43 and 44.

SOUTHERN RHODESIA

(NOTE.—Southern Rhodesia is a self-governing Colony, the European population of which has doubled since the last war. Consequently the Government has introduced quota restrictions to govern immigration, details of which are embodied in administrative memoranda, not in legislation.)

I. IMMIGRATION LAWS AND FEATURES OF BASIC POLICIES

1. Legislation

The Immigrants Regulations Act, chapter 60, lists as prohibited immigrants:

(*a*) Any person declared undesirable by the Governor on economic grounds or on account of standard of habits of life;

(*b*) Any person unable to read and write a European language including Yiddish;

(*c*) Any person likely to become a public charge because of infirmity of mind or body or insufficient means of support;

(*d*) Any person deemed by the Governor as undesirable from information received from any government, British or foreign, through official or diplomatic channels;

(*e*) Prostitutes and procurers;

(*f*) Persons convicted of serious crimes;

(*g*) Idiots, epileptics, etc.;

(*h*) Lepers or persons afflicted with contagious or loathsome diseases;

(*i*) Any person deported from the Colony not possessing valid authority to return.

Persons over 16 entering the Colony must possess a passport or valid travel documents.

2. Immigration procedure

Immigration procedure is largely governed by the regulations issued by the Governor in accordance with power granted him by the basic legislation.

Visitors and transits are required to produce evidence that they intend to return to their country of domicile or last residence and that they have permission to reenter that country. The period of visit is restricted to 6 months but may be extended by the chief immigration officer to 12 months. A visitor must show that he has sufficient means to maintain himself and his dependents during the period of his visit. He may not take up employment in the Colony unless he has been granted a residence permit. A visitor who wishes to remain permanently in the Colony must leave the country and apply for a residence permit from without its borders.

Permanent immigrants (employees and settlers) must obtain a residence permit which is issued by a Selection Board. There are three Selection Boards, the British Immigrants Selection Board in Salisbury, Rhodesia (for British immigrants from the African area), the British Immigrants Selection Board in London, England (for British immigrants from the area of Great Britain), and the Alien Immigrants Selection Board in Salisbury (for all aliens, wherever resident).

(NOTE.—Information in the following paragraph is unofficial. Details are probably changed from time to time by administrative regulation.)

The number of immigrants permitted to enter the colony for permanent residence is now governed by a quota. The British quota is now 2,200 persons each quarter of the year; 1,100 permits may be issued each 3 months by the London Board and a similar number by the British Board in Salisbury. The quota for alien immigrants is 8 percent of the total quota; 92 percent of the total

quota must be British. Generally, the London Board requires an applicant for a residence permit to establish that he has either bona fide employment in Southern Rhodesia, or that he will bring capital with him in the amount of £1,500. The size of the family of an immigrant is generally restricted to two children.

It is a condition of the issue of a residence permit that the holder will not engage in any occupation other than that listed on the permit without the permission of the Salisbury Selection Board. After domicile has been acquired (3 years' residence), such conditions do not apply.

There is a serious housing shortage in Southern Rhodesia so the Selection Board will not issue a residence permit unless the applicant has assured accommodation.

II. EFFECTIVENESS OF LAWS AND POLICIES

As in the case of other British territories, the basic legislation allows the Governor wide power to regulate immigration by administration. Thus policies are made effective by administrative action. Quotas can be varied and qualifications can be changed in accordance with change in the economic or social character of the Colony. Officials feel that the present system of control of immigration is entirely effective.[1]

III. STATISTICAL DATA

TABLE 1.[1]—*Number of immigrants (other than Africans) entering Southern Rhodesia*

Year	Total number	Number of RAF (included in total)
1944	623	(2)
1945	1,759	(2)
1946	9,195	271
1947	13,595	637
1948	17,037	2,444
1949	14,155	1,733
195	16,245	1,729
1951[3]	17,561	(2)
1952 (first 7 months)[3]	9,644	(2)

[1] Official yearbook of Southern Rhodesia, No. 4, 1952.
[2] Not available.
[3] Source: Office of High Commissioner for Rhodesia, Records Departments.

During the period between 1930 and 1950, 95.3 percent of the immigrants were British subjects.

During the month of July 1952, capital imports declared by immigrants totalled £270,052.

TABLE 2.[1]—*Net balance of migration of Europeans*

Span of years	Immigration	Emigration	Net balance of migration
1921–26	9,400	6,676	2,724
1926–31	20,106	12,695	7,421
1931–36	9,090	7,058	2,032
1936–41	12,850	7,157	5,693
1941–46	8,250	6,192	2,058
1946–51	64,634	17,447	47,187

[1] Official Yearbook of Southern Rhodesia, No. 4, 1952.

[1] Source: Mr. Richardson, Rhodesia House, London (Immigration Information Office), Mr. W. V. Bond, secretary, British Immigrants Selection Board (London).

PERU

NOVEMBER 12, 1952.

Foreign Service Despatch 360.
From: American Embassy, Lima.
To: The Department of State, Washington.
Reference: Department's OM, dated October 6, 1952; deptel 111, dated October 23, 1952; and Department's OM, dated November 7, 1952.
Subject: Report on Peruvian immigration laws and policies.

There is transmitted a report on Peruvian immigration laws and policies, covering the basic features of such laws and policies; the success achieved; available statistics indicating the number of immigrants received on an annual basis in Peru since 1945; and the type of immigrant desirable.

It has been considered pertinent, as well, to include a brief résumé of the historical development of present immigration policy.

Translations of pertinent provisions of laws and statements of policy are nearing completion and will be forwarded to the Department as promptly as possible.

For the Ambassador:

BERNARD F. HEILER,
American Consul.

Since the first immigration law effected on November 21, 1832, until 1930, the Peruvian Government has passed a series of laws designed to increase immigration to Peru. Confronted with a light population density of six persons per square kilometer and a great need for agricultural workers and of colonists to settle the montaña, or jungle region, Peruvian legislators for one century have tried various devices to attract immigrants to Peru. The period 1830–1930 has been characterized as the "liberal" epoch of Peruvian immigration legislation, during which successive governments offered free land, free transportation to Peru, tax exemptions, military service exemptions, etc., to entice prospective immigrants. Premiums were offered to Peruvian agents who were successful in bringing immigrants to Peruvian shores.

This liberal policy has been described as a failure. Numbers of immigrants have not flocked to Peru. Of those who came, the majority were orientals. Most of the immigrants did not remain as agricultural workers on the haciendas, as originally planned; and the montaña of northeastern Peru remains a vast, rich, unsettled area.

The last important national influx of immigrants to Peru was that of the Japanese, from 1897 to 1930. The social unrest caused by the coming of the Japanese resulted in the passage of the supreme decree of June 26, 1936. This decree was aimed at halting oriental immigration in general and Japanese in particular. The thinking at the time of the passing of this decree is reflected in the book, "Derecho Internacional Público," by Alberto ULLOA, Foreign Minister at that time, who wrote alluding to the decree: "The increase of Japanese immigration and the activities developed by these immigrants have created social unrest during recent years in Peru because their conditions and methods of working have produced pernicious competition for the Peruvian workers and businessmen. These activities are marked by strong Japanese nationalistic characteristics. The social unrest is principally reflected among the popular classes because of the tendency of the Japanese immigrant to monopolize small industries and the occupations of workers and artisans."

The decree of 1936 was implemented by the supreme decree to regulate immigration, dated May 15, 1937. This latter decree is the basic document, with slight modifications, which governs immigration to Peru today.

I. SUPREME DECREE OF MAY 15, 1937

The change from a liberal to a restrictive policy of immigration was highlighted by the passage of the supreme decree of May 15, 1937. For the first time in Peruvian immigration legislation a quota system was established: The number of immigrants that may enter Peru may not exceed 0.002 percent of the total population; and in any case may not exceed 16,000 persons of each nationality. In actuality, the quota system is operative only with regard to Chinese, Japanese, and any other oriental immigration applicants. Oriental immigration has been effectively stopped; quota restrictions for other nationalities have not been adhered to.

Peruvian employees and laborers must comprise at least 80 percent of the total work force of any commercial, industrial, or agricultural enterprise. The num-

ber of foreign commercial and industrial enterprises may not exceed 20 percent of the total of such enterprises.

The following classes of persons are not admissible to Peru: unaccompanied children under 10 years of age; the penniless; vagabonds and gypsies; those who suffer from insanity; alcoholics, epileptics, tuberculars, syphilitics, lepers, and those with contagious diseases; paralytics, the blind and deaf, unaccompanied; drug addicts; those who deal in white slavery; those who traffic in pornographic and obscene material; Communists, anarchists, and nihilists, and those who profess doctrines or belong to parties or sects advocating the destruction of organized social and political order; and criminals.

Persons who wish to come as immigrants must first deposit 2,000 soles (1 sol equaled U. S. $0.25 in 1937) per family member as guaranty of return passage in the event that employment is not obtained within 90 days. (This provision was rescinded by the supreme decree of July 10, 1946.)

A National Council for Immigration was established as a consultative body regarding immigration problems. This organization met irregularly and accomplished little.

II. POSTWAR IMMIGRATION POLICY

Shortly after World War II the Peruvian Government made several efforts to increase immigration to Peru while retaining the decree of 1937. The National Council for Immigration was reconstituted to study the problem seriously. A commission was sent to Europe to encourage immigration to Peru. Attempts were made to discover statistically what kind, how many, and which nationalities of specialists and technicians were needed and desired by Peruvian industry.

By the supreme decree of December 12, 1947, the Peruvian Government reverted to special concessions for attracting immigrants in national groups. This decree contracted to give 15,000 hectares of montaña to the Societa por Azioni "Italo Peruviana Agricola Industriales," known as "S. A. I. P. A. I." Special provisions as to import duties for the new colonists were allowed. The Peruvian Government promised to pay 10,000 soles (1 sol equaled U. S. $0.07, 1952) to each family consisting of four persons. S. A. I. P. A. I. was to bring groups of Italian immigrants to the concession. The declared motive for the decree is noteworthy: "The essential bases for effective colonization depend upon the selection of the immigrant, his adaptability, race, and religion; cession of land; donation of habitation, animals, and tools; accessibility of the land," etc.

To date, only some 35 Italian families have arrived, and the experiment does not appear to be successful.

III. IMMIGRATION STATISTICS

Peruvian statistics are for the most part incomplete. Recently published statistics show that there are now approximately 60,000 foreigners residing permanently in Peru, of which 12,728 are Japanese and 9,546 are Chinese.

Statistics obtained from the Peruvian Foreign Office regarding the number of immigrants who have come to Peru between 1945 and July 1952 indicate a total of 15,235. There is no annual breakdown available. Of the total of 15,235 immigrants, 1,927 arrived during the period February 24, 1948, to March 28, 1949, under the auspices of IRO. By subtracting the number of displaced persons settled in Peru by IRO from the total number of immigrants, the total number of normal immigrants is 13,308. This last total divided by 7½ years, the period under consideration, results in an average annual immigration of 1,764 persons.

It is possible to estimate the actual number of immigrants who came to Peru for each of the years 1945–49. The total number of persons entering Peru for each of these years was as follows:

1945	62,841
1946	75,353
1947	121,193
1948	179,756
1949	200,311

By using the coefficient of 1 percent, estimated by the Peruvian Ministry of Finance to be the percentage reflecting the number of persons who are immi-

grants among the total number of arrivals, normal immigration on an annual basis would be:

Year:	*Number of immigrants*
1945	628
1946	753
1947	1,211
1948	[1] 1,788
1949	2,003

[1] From the total arrivals in 1948 the 1,927 immigrants settled by IRO were subtracted.

IV. PRESENT OUTLOOK REGARDING IMMIGRATION TO PERU

Present Peruvian attitude toward general immigration to Peru is negative. The office within the Foreign Ministry which was charged with immigration policy has been disbanded. The Peruvian official in Italy who was studying the possibilities of Italian immigration to Peru is being recalled.

On the other hand, Peru remains interested in settling the vast montaña region. Rich forests, plentiful land which must first be cleared of its luxuriant jungle growth, and a bearable climate are the attractions of the montaña. The type of immigrant that Peru would most like to receive is a European peasant and his family, of the Catholic religion, imbued with the pioneer spirit. However, until roads or a railroad is put through to the region so that markets are available to the producers in the montaña and until housing and a standard of living that the average European immigrant would consider minimum can be assured, immigration to Peru in large numbers is unlikely.

CHILE

NOVEMBER 24, 1952.

Foreign Service Despatch No. 543.
From: American Embassy, Santiago, Chile.
To: The Department of State, Washington (for ARA).
Reference: Department's OM, October 6, 1952.
Subject: Administration—ARA: Report on Chilean Immigration Laws and policies.

The Chilean Government's early efforts, after gaining independence, to foster a system of planned immigration, which would supplement a small annual voluntary immigration, met with limited success. It was hoped to induce experienced European farmers to settle in the southern part of Chile by offering them free grants of land but it soon became apparent that a large portion of the desirable areas had been snatched up by opportunists who secretly negotiated with the Indians in the hope of making huge profits in the resale of the land. Also, a relatively few families owned and tenaciously held on to huge estates in the central and most desirable sections of the country. These lands came into their possession as a result of royal grants made during the colonial period. This state of affairs tended to discourage immigrant farmers and, to this day, this condition has not permitted the development of medium-sized farms, while small holdings are being continuously subdivided.

The Government made repeated efforts to encourage experienced agriculturists to immigrate to Chile. In 1845, as a result of a law passed to facilitate colonization in the south, a group of German immigrants, attracted by offers of land, were brought to Chile and successfully established at Osorno. The President of Chile was voted increased powers in 1851 to grant state-owned lands to immigrant-settlers.

In 1872, the National Society for Agriculture, whose membership consisted of the country's biggest landholders, was given the title of "General Immigration Office" and charged with promoting the immigration of farmers.

In 1882, the Government appointed a general agent for European colonization and sent him abroad to facilitate the immigration of laborers. The Government also created the position of inspector general of colonization and he had the responsibility of receiving and settling these immigrants.

About this time, the Government, becoming increasingly aware of the country's mineral wealth and the opportunities for industrialization, tried to promote the immigration of Europeans with capital and technical know-how. As early as 1824, to those in a position to set up industrial workshops, the Government offered grants of land, tax concessions, and exemptions from military service.

The civil war of 1891 sharply reduced immigration until the year 1895, when the Government once again pursued its program of planned immigration. A

law was passed reducing sea and rail fares to assist immigrants holding official work contracts. In 1905, immigration agencies were established in Geneva and Hamburg, and selected immigrants were granted such additional benefits as free transportation of machinery and equipment and temporary free room and board. With such inducements, Chile succeeded in getting 22,000 useful immigrants between 1905 and 1910.

The First World War and its economic after effects tended to cut down immigration. During the world-wide depression of the thirties, which hit the country hard, Chile's policy of unrestricted immigration changed and became based on the principle that the country had most to gain from a limited and selective immigration. Thus, Chilean firms were given maximum quotas of foreign employees that could be taken on contract, and the policy of granting free land to colonists was restricted to native-born and naturalized Chileans.

A new phase in Chilean immigration policy began in 1939 when the Government admitted approximately 15,000 Jewish refugee immigrants and some 3,000 Spanish political exiles who fled Spain after the Franco victory and the fall of the Spanish Republic. The admittance of these persons was mainly an act of humanitarianism although they were selected in accordance with the economic contributions they could make to the country.

The Chilean Government signed a convention with the International Refugee Organization in 1948, wherein it agreed to permit the immigration of 2,000 European families who had been displaced as a result of World War II. Up to January 1950 approximately 2,800 persons immigrated to Chile under this program, and the Government assisted them by providing temporary homes, and helping them find employment.

Enclosures No. 1 and No. 2 give the best rough estimates, on an annual basis, of the number of immigrants who have come to Chile since 1849. They show that, with a new emphasis on planned immigration beginning in 1882, immigration swelled from yearly averages of mostly less than 100 to a 7-year (1882–88) average of almost 1,400 a year. In 1889 and 1890, immigrants poured in at the annual rate of 10,700. Although the next 15-year period to 1906 showed a sharp drop in immigration from this extremely high 2-year figure, a relatively high rate of 800 immigrants annually was maintained. In 1907, immigration again rose sharply, and continued high to 1925, interrupted only by World War I. After a decade of rising and falling, arrivals of foreigners showed a slight rise to the beginning of World War II. Few immigrants arrived in the period 1940–43 but after 1946 a steep rise began and has continued. It is estimated that in the period from 1850 to 1950 a little over 200,000 settlers came to Chile. Enclosure No. 3 is a comparative table showing the numbers of foreigners, by nationality, resident in the country in 1895, 1920, and 1949.

In the past 30 years, the Government has permitted a relatively large immigration of Arabs and Eastern Europeans. It is officially reported that in 1949 there were residing in Chile some 6,300 Arabs and approximately 14,000 Eastern Europeans, many of whom are refugees. Surprisingly, there were also resident some 1,800 Chinese and over 500 Japanese.

The population of Chile is presently estimated at just under 6 million and a little over 2 percent, or 125,000, is considered to be foreign resident. The density of population for the country as a whole is about eight inhabitants per square kilometer but most of the population is concentrated in the middle third of the country.

Chile has never had a basic general immigration law, and there does not even exist a legal definition for the term "immigrant." No official statistics are kept specifying whether persons arriving in Chile are coming as permanent residents or for temporary stays to complete work contracts, etc. A record is kept only of the number of foreigners who annually enter and depart, and it may only be guessed that the difference between the two figures represents immigrants who intend to reside permanently in Chile.

Efforts in recent years to pass a general immigration bill have proven unsuccessful. A bill presented to Congress in 1945 by the President of Chile was permitted to lapse completely. An immigration law, which was drafted by the Ministry of Economies and Commerce in 1948 and provided for "free immigration" and "controlled immigration" was not considered practical and was shelved. One of the Ministry's suggestions, though, met with favor, and in the same year, 1948, there was created the Permanent Immigration Commission. This commission functions today but with very little real authority, sitting mostly as an advisory body.

The decree which established the Permanent Immigration Commission also defined the Government's policy on immigration as "a policy that would increase

the productive and technical capacity of the country, and would maintain and insure the homogeneity of the nation by means of the incorporation of a human element capable of adaptation and rapid assimilation, avoiding the entry of undesirable or unadaptable individuals."

The Government's aim is to foster the immigration of trained agricultural and especially industrial technicians, their entry limited only to the requirements of the country and its economic ability to absorb them. It is preferred that they come from countries with cultural and demographic affinities to Chile so that they may be rapidly assimilated and not form national minorities or foreign political groups amongst the Chilean populace. At present, due to this policy, Spaniards form the largest foreign group resident in Chile.

Some Chilean Government officials and other responsible elements believe that the native population is increasing at a satisfactory annual rate, 1.3 percent, and are of the opinion that only a selective immigration would prevent social unrest springing from a fear of economic competition by impoverished immigrants. It is also felt that by limiting immigration Chile's culture would evolve naturally, and there would be no additional fears that national security or stability was endangered.

A policy of mass immigration is not considered in the best interest of the country. The larger cities are overcrowded and there is a serious shortage of housing. Only in the extreme south does the Government control sufficient land but this area is bleak and uninviting to European immigrants. Due to the existing system of land tenure, the Government would have to resort to expropriation measures but this would undoubtedly bring on additional social and political problems. Furthermore, land grants to immigrants would arouse the ire of the native rural population, most of which lives from hand to mouth. Any colonization schemes must, therefore, primarily benefit this impoverished group.

As Chilean industry develops, it needs and can absorb a limited number of immigrants with technical know-how but industrial labor is available from amongst the native population; it needs only to be transferred from other nonproductive areas of the country.

The Government's early attempts to promote immigration met with difficulties and misunderstanding. Chilean entrepreneurs thought that immigrants were a good source of cheap labor, while, on the other hand, the workingman was afraid that the new arrivals would further depress his already very low living standard. Also, the church and those involved in politics were deeply suspicious of the Government's immigration plans. Actually, these high-class immigrants stimulated economic progress and the fears of the politicos and church have proven to be unfounded.

The Government was convinced that its policy was correct and, during the 1880's, intensified its efforts and succeeded in bringing in and settling 25,000 German, Swiss, French, Italian, and English immigrants. These immigrants, together with the small groups that had immigrated in the past, were most industrious and they gave the south a new look of activity and progress. A good many of these experienced immigrants provided their own capital to set themselves up and cost the Chilean Government nothing toward their settlement. Furthermore, they succeeded in blending their various cultures with that of the Chilean and have, after naturalization, accepted responsible posts in the Government service.

During the periods of the two World Wars, when Chile's dependence on imports was felt most acutely, the policy of attracting immigrants who could make solid contributions to the economy really paid off for, with their technical experience and capital, they started many small industries which supplied essential goods available only from abroad.

Although the volume of immigration to Chile has always been small, immigrants have played a role in the country's economic progress out of all proportion to their numbers. They are responsible for the establishment in Chile of a textile and paper industry, the introduction of the science of metallurgy, the brewing of beer, the development of a transport system, the breeding of livestock and wool production. Recent immigrants are manufacturing chemicals and pharmaceuticals, glassware, furniture, sheet glass, books, ceramics, plastics, utensils, canning materials, etc., all of which were formerly imported. New immigrants are introducing modern merchandising methods and are distributing manufactured goods throughout the country.

Considering the rate of industrial development, the small amount of investment capital, the small market due to the low buying power of the Chilean people, and the ready availability of manpower if required, it can be stated that experience has shown that the practice of encouraging the immigration from

western Europe of a small but continuing stream of trained immigrants is one that is proving highly successful.

There has been some criticism within the country over the Government's policy on admitting the Jewish refugees. Businessmen are reportedly opposed to further immigration of this class because of the feeling that they have been detrimental to the economy of the country due to their habit of concentrating in the larger cities, especially Santiago, and it is widely believed that they engage mostly in speculative commercial enterprises. There has been no such criticism of the Government's policy in admitting the Spanish refugees from the Franco regime as they have spread themselves around the country and do not seem to be engaged mainly in commercial activities.

Statistics were kept in connection with the joint immigration program of the Chilean Government and the International Refugee Organization. They show that 97 percent of the active immigrants who arrived in 1948 found employment quickly in their separate fields, engaging in productive work with great success. They have learned the new language and seem to have successfully fitted into their respective social patterns. Enclosures Nos. 4, 5, and 6 give their sex and age group, nationalities, and religions.

In recent years, the emphasis has been on encouraging the immigration to Chile of industrial technicians. Considering the rise in population and the abuse of good farm land, resulting in food shortages, it seems that more attention should be given to bringing in technicians and farmers experienced in modern agricultural practices. The desire to have trained agriculturists settle in Chile has been somewhat defeated by the Government's economic discrimination in favor of native and naturalized Chilean colonists who receive benefits not available to immigrant farmers.

To carry out a fully effective immigration policy requires the passage of a general immigration law, incorporating the various laws, decrees, and regulations which have proven practical and the weeding out of dated and contradictory provisions. A single organization should be responsible for developing and carrying out policy. At the present time, four Government ministries, a special commission, and a special department are all actively interested in immigration matters.

The Government has been thinking recently of setting up annual immigration quotas and is presently making a study of the American quota system.

There are enclosed three recent newspaper clippings concerning the Dutch Government's interest in settling some of its nationals in Chile, the arrival of Italian colonists, and a statement by a member of the Permanent Immigration Commission regarding new plans to foster selective immigration of agriculturists.

Also enclosed is a single copy of a Chilean Government publication dated 1950 and entitled "Recopilacion de Disposiciones Legales y Reglamentarias Sobre Extranjeria," translated as a compilation of legal provisions and regulations concerning foreigners.

Most of the information and tables submitted in this report was obtained from a study made of Immigration in Chile, a report of the United Nations Economic and Social Council, published in May 1950.

For the Ambassador:

CARLOS C. HALL.
Counselor of Embassy.

ENCLOSURE No. 1.—*Migration: Estimated number of immigrants entering Chile, 1849–1906*

Years	*Number of immigrants*	*Years*	*Number of immigrants*	*Years*	*Number of immigrants*
1849	85	1863	12	1892	286
1851	102	1864	155	1893	405
1852	212	1866	26	1894	395
1853	51	1869	7	1896	1,114
1854	35	1882	2,466	1897	970
1856	460	1885	1,837	1898	564
1857	180	1886	905	1899	548
1858	9	1887	808	1900	936
1859	11	1888	805	1901	1,449
1860	93	1889	10,413	1902	864
1861	11	1890	11,091	1905	293
1862	32	1891	318	1906	1,142

Source: *Política, legislación y control de la immigración en Chile y otros Estados Americanos* (The Policy, Legislation, and Control of Immigration in Chile and other American countries), by Eliana Bucchi Pensa, Santiago, 1939.

ENCLOSURE NO. 2.—*Movements of foreigners in Chile, 1908–48*

Year	Arrivals	Departures	Differences	Year	Arrivals	Departures	Differences
1908	25,775	12,750	+13,016	1929	37,988	33,356	+4,632
1909	19,014	15,867	+3,147	1930	39,860	37,860	+1,410
1910	25,788	16,798	+8,990	1931	29,195	29,888	−693
1911	24,845	23,841	+1,004	1932	25,151	25,878	−728
1912	27,645	15,482	+12,163	1933	25,396	23,671	+1,725
1913	35,393	28,248	+7,145	1934	26,550	26,901	−351
1914	47,147	21,054	+26,093	1935	31,524	29,536	+1,988
1915	17,326	10,408	+6,918	1936	35,313	32,032	+3,281
1916	25,878	24,919	+959	1937	40,085	36,821	+3,264
1917	30,076	19,009	+11,067	1938	48,221	44,751	+3,470
1918	17,953	19,438	−1,485	1939	54,486	47,960	+6,526
1919	15,658	15,124	+534	1940	46,368	45,576	+792
1920	22,122	18,391	+3,731	1941	49,790	52,511	−2,721
1921	21,926	15,072	+6,854	1942	53,649	55,796	−2,147
1922	19,528	15,489	+4,039	1943	72,164	73,276	−1,112
1923	21,998	17,283	+4,715	1944	68,250	66,909	+1,341
1924	37,054	29,166	+7,888	1945	84,729	84,425	+304
1925	32,255	25,234	+7,021	1946	121,888	116,373	+5,515
1926	27,060	26,837	+223	1947	122,542	115,599	+6,943
1927	23,683	24,282	−599	1948	121,334	106,627	+14,707
1928	22,395	21,667	+728				

Source: Dirección General de Estadística.

ENCLOSURE NO. 3.—*Foreigners resident in Chile*

Nationalities	Annual census			Nationalities	Annual census		
	1895	1920	1949		1895	1920	1949
Germans	7,560	8,950	20,052	Japanese	20	557	526
Arabs	------	1,849	------	Lebanese	------	------	908
Argentines	7,507	7,362	8,405	Mexicans	123	183	352
Austro-Hungarians	1,550	1,573	788	Norwegians	221	319	199
Belgians	278	387	452	Palestinians	------	1,164	3,855
Bolivians	8,669	15,552	5,606	Panamanians	------	------	263
Brazilians	94	290	568	Paraguayans	------	------	149
Canadians	------	------	194	Peruvians	15,999	12,991	4,060
Cubans	------	------	358	Poles	------	181	2,055
Colombians	143	217	988	Portuguese	237	403	219
Costa Ricans	------	------	155	Rumanians	------	144	1,644
Czechs	------	------	1,150	Russians	234	1,320	1,823
Chinese	999	1,954	1,799	Serbs	------	1,432	------
Danes	241	337	316	Syrians	------	1,204	1,590
Ecuadorians	421	711	1,096	Swedes	211	242	285
Slavs	------	1,354	------	Swiss	1,653	1,677	1,423
Spaniards	8,494	25,962	26,757	Turks	76	1,282	451
North Americans	745	1,908	4,440	Uruguayans	186	407	691
French	8,266	7,215	4,074	Yougoslavs	------	------	4,666
Greeks	137	522	736	Venezuelans	------	------	565
Dutch	98	492	908	Other nationalities	259	717	1,186
Hungarians	------	------	1,560				
British	6,838	7,220	4,639	Total	79,056	120,436	124,049
Italians	7,797	12,358	14,098				

NOTE.—No group of less than 100 is specified.

Source: Dirección General de Estadística and Dirección General de Identificación y Pasaportes (Identification and Passport Office).

ENCLOSURE No. 4.—*Analysis of immigration in Chile up to January 1950 under the convention with the International Refugee Organization: A. Classification of immigrants according to sex, age, nationality, religion, profession, or occupation: 1. Sex and age*

	Arrivals			Total	Percentages
	1948	1949	January 1950		
Adult men	487	439	290	1,216	44.7
Adult women	428	348	124	900	33.0
Adolescents	33	.....	.....	33	
Children of 2 to 15	85	177	51	313	22.3
Children under 2	148	91	18	260	
Total	1,181	1,053	483	2,722	100.0

Source: Dirección General de Trabajo, Servicio Social.

ENCLOSURE No. 5.—*Nationalities*

Nationalities	Arrivals			Total
	1948	1949	January 1950	
Albanians	.....	.....	3	3
Germans	.....	2	2	4
Armenians	13	1	.....	14
Austrians	.....	.....	2	2
Bulgarians	.....	7	5	12
Czechs	.....	71	46	117
Spaniards	17	5	4	26
Estonians	.....	12	.....	12
Greeks	17	26	6	49
Hungarians	.....	186	115	301
Letts	56	25	8	89
Lithuanians	18	15	.....	33
Poles	281	220	43	544
Rumanians	34	55	18	107
Russians	229	82	7	318
Ukrainians	38	68	.....	106
Yugoslavs	200	216	214	630
Other nationalities	79	.....	.....	79
Stateless persons	199	67	10	276
Total	1,181	1,058	483	2,722

Source: Dirección General de Trabajo, Servicio Social.

ENCLOSURE No. 6.—*Religions*

Creeds	Arrivals		Creeds	Arrivals	
	1948	1949		1948	1949
Christians:			Jews	29	.....
Orthodox	437	239	Mohammedans	.....	11
Greek Orthodox	194	15	Agnostics	49	.....
Roman Catholics	317	554			
Greek Catholics	99	122	Grand total	1,181	1,058
Protestants	56	111			
Lutherans	.....	3			
Baptists	.....	3			
Total	1,103	1,047			

Source: Dirección General de Trabajo, Servicio Social.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING THE PRESENT EMIGRATION POLICIES OF U. S. S. R., POLAND, CZECHOSLOVAKIA, HUNGARY, RUMANIA, BULGARIA, AND YUGOSLAVIA

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, October 30, 1952.

MR. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Executive Office, Washington 25, D. C.

MY DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: Reference is made to your letter of October 10, 1952, in which you request a statement by this Department on the present emigration policies of the U. S. S. R., Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Yugoslavia. In accordance with your request, there is summarized below such information in this regard as is available to the Department of State at this time:

1. U. S. S. R.

Under Soviet law no person living in the Soviet Union may depart from that country without an exit visa issued by the Soviet Government. Over the course of the years preceding World War II and immediately thereafter, a few Soviet citizens were allowed to leave the Soviet Union for the purpose of immigrating to the United States. It is possible that similar small groups left the Soviet Union for other countries. Those immigrating to the United States consisted, in practically all cases, of persons who were closely related to American citizens or who had claim to American citizenship. No Soviet citizen has been given permission to leave the Soviet Union for the purpose of travel to the United States for other than official reasons since October 1947.

At the present time the immigration to the United States of persons chargeable to the Soviet quota consists of individuals who were born in the former Russian Empire or in the U. S. S. R. but who are now living beyond the borders of the Soviet Union. For the most part this group represents persons who fled the Soviet Union and who have been living abroad for a number of years.

There is attached, as of possible further interest, a statement prepared by the American Embassy in Moscow in June 1949 which discusses the Soviet exit visa policy as it applies to all persons living in territory controlled by the Soviet Government. The formalities connected with obtaining a Soviet exit visa are described in this memorandum.

2. Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria

The Soviet-dominated governments of Eastern Europe maintain highly restrictive emigration policies. Citizens of these countries are not permitted to emigrate freely and, to depart legally, they must obtain both passports and exit permits. In Poland the issuance of passports and exit permits is within the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Public Security; in Czechoslovakia, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs; and in Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria, the Ministry of Interior.

In most of the few instances where individual citizens of these countries have been permitted to emigrate, they have been persons over 60 years of age who have no political past or especial significance, who are regarded as an economic burden rather than asset to the state, and whose departure is therefore considered harmless to these regimes from a propaganda and other points of view. Most of these individuals are close relatives of persons who have previously emigrated from Eastern Europe and settled abroad.

Apart from the occasional individual cases of aged persons, the governments of the above-named countries have permitted some Jewish emigration. The volume of such emigration has varied considerably from time to time and from country to country. The Jewish emigration has taken place under arrangements negotiated with the Soviet satellite governments by international Jewish organizations or the Israeli Government and has usually involved the payment of subsidies or other material concessions to the satellite regimes. The destination of most of the Jewish emigrants has, of course, been Israel.

It may be noted further that the Bulgarian Government has permitted about one-fourth of the ethnic Turkish minority in Bulgaria to emigrate to Turkey and that the Rumanian Government has allowed many members of the ethnic Greek population in Rumania to go to Greece. However, the movement of these elements, as in the case of Jews, has been more in the nature of group migration than of normal emigration by individuals.

3. Yugoslavia

Although Yugoslav emigration policy, in its basic pattern, has been similar to the policies of the Soviet satellite governments, there is some evidence in recent practice of the relaxation of Yugoslav restrictions in this field. Several hundreds of dual nationals (Yugoslav-American), who have wished to emigrate, have been permitted to leave Yugoslavia, and there is reason to believe that the Yugoslav Government may take further action in the near future to ameliorate its hitherto restrictive emigration policy.

Immigration to the United States of persons chargeable to the respective quotas of the Soviet satellite countries and to the Yugoslav quota consists almost entirely at the present time of nationals of those countries who, though born there, fled abroad to escape Nazi or Communist persecution and have been residing in Western Europe or elsewhere throughout the world.

Sincerely yours,

WALWORTH BARBOUR,
Director, Office of Eastern European Affairs.

INFORMATION CONCERNING SOVIET EXIT VISAS

Under Soviet law no person living in the Soviet Union may depart from the country without the permission of the Soviet Government in the form of an exit visa. This regulation applies not only to Soviet citizens but to foreigners as well, including diplomatic personnel. Except in the case of diplomatic personnel and other representatives of foreign governments who receive their visas through the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Moscow, applications for such visas must be made in the administrative center nearest the applicant's place of residence to the appropriate office of the militsiva, or police, which in the Soviet Union is an agency of the Central Government, being a branch of the Ministry of Internal Affairs or MVD.

Such visas are issued with comparative readiness to foreigners who recently arrived in the Soviet Union with passports properly visaed by Soviet officials abroad, though even such persons may frequently experience considerable delays. For many years, however, it has been extremely difficult, and for the past 2 years virtually impossible, for all other persons to obtain exit visas. In the case of those who may be claimed by any possible interpretation of Soviet law to be Soviet citizens, it is safe to say that the present Soviet policy is to issue no exit visas for travel to the United States for any reason, however compelling, except the official business of the Soviet Government. No Soviet citizen whose request for an American visa was not officially sponsored by the Soviet Government has received a Soviet exit visa for travel to the United States since October 1947.

There are now on record with the Embassy the cases of approximately 5,500 persons who at some time since 1940 (in almost all cases, at least 3 years ago) have informed the Embassy of their desire to travel to the United States. The great majority of these persons were neither residents nor citizens of the Soviet Union before 1939, but acquired Soviet citizenship automatically as residents of territories annexed during or since the recent war. Of this group approximately 2,000 have presented claims to American citizenship; about 3,500 have no such claim but are applying for American immigration visas.

To the Embassy's knowledge, only 76 of these 3,500 non-American citizens have succeeded in departing from the U. S. S. R. since 1940, and of these 76 at least 41 were not Soviet citizens but citizens of other countries or of no country at all, 33 of them were given exit visas not for travel to the United States but for repatriation to Poland as Polish citizens under a Soviet-Polish agreement. However, even this slow rate of departure has been checked since 1947. In that year exit visas were issued to Soviet citizens in this group in only three cases, all exceptional. Two of these cases involved the American-born widows of prominent Soviet citizens and the alien minor child of one; the third, the alien minor child of an American-citizen mother who was also the widow of a Soviet citizen. Since that year no Soviet citizen in this group has received an exit visa, and only one other non-American citizen has been able to immigrate to the United States from the Soviet Union.

Of about 350 Soviet wives of American citizens who have applied for permission to depart from the Soviet Union to join their husbands, not one has received a visa since August 1946. Ninety-seven of this group are the wives of veterans, and the great majority of them were already married when they became Soviet citizens in the manner indicated above. In connection with the problem of obtaining exit visas for fiancées of American citizens it should be noted that

a decree of the Soviet Government published on February 15, 1947, forbids Soviet citizens to marry foreigners.

Of the approximately 2,000 claimants to American citizenship mentioned above, the Embassy and the Department of State have been able to verify the claims of about 600. The claims of approximately 250 more are now before the Department of State for decision and about 100 others have proved not to be American citizens or to have lost their citizenship. The majority of the remainder probably have valid claims, but the Embassy has had difficulty in collecting sufficient information in many cases to justify decision, usually because after receiving an applicant's initial letter the Embassy has been unable to communicate with him further. In many such cases the Embassy's letters remain unanswered or are returned undelivered. In a few cases the returned letters indicate the applicant's departure from the U. S. S. R. to Poland or some other country, perhaps as a Polish citizen under the agreement mentioned above; in other cases, merely that his whereabouts are not known. In still other cases, letters from applicants have indicated that they had not received the Embassy's letters or that they had written earlier letters which did not reach the Embassy. In such circumstances the figures given above are necessarily inexact, but there are in all probability between 1,800 and 1,900 persons still residing in the Soviet Union who have valid or potentially valid claims to American citizenship and desire to return to the United States but cannot obtain the permission of the Soviet Government to do so.

The great majority of these persons are dual nationals; that is, while their claims to American citizenship are valid, they are at the same time considered by the Soviet Government to be Soviet citizens. The Soviet Government, however, does not admit the possibility that one of its citizens can at the same time possess the citizenship of another country, and such persons are considered under Soviet law to be Soviet citizens only. Like other Soviet citizens they have been seldom in the past and never in recent years permitted to leave the country for personal or family reasons. Since 1940 only 17 such persons have received exit visas; since December 1946, none.

Under a strict interpretation of the appropriate Soviet laws, only persons who actually possessed the citizenship of the country whose territory was annexed became Soviet citizens; a foreigner living on that territory did not. Some of the persons mentioned above were actually citizens of the country in question. Many were born in the United States of foreign parents and thus acquired the right of their parents' citizenship at birth as well as to that of the United States. However, all such persons were not necessarily citizens of those countries. Prewar Poland, for example, had a law which forbade such persons to claim both citizenships at once; but it did not insist in most cases that they keep their Polish citizenship if they had a right to, and wished to claim, another citizenship. Such persons if they came to Poland on American passports were considered to be American, and not Polish, citizens, and others who had lived as Polish citizens were allowed to leave the country on American passports and were then no longer Polish citizens.

The Soviet authorities themselves at first recognized that many such persons were not Soviet citizens and issued them residence permits identifying them as foreigners or as persons with no citizenship. Up to 1947 such persons were often allowed to leave the country. In 1948, however, only 3 of more than 50 American citizens not previously claimed as Soviet citizens were able to leave. None have left so far in 1949. Of the rest, many who obtained American passports and tried to obtain exit visas have had their residence permits and their passports taken away and have been declared Soviet citizens. Since it is a serious offense in the Soviet Union to live without proper documents, these persons face the threat of fine, imprisonment, or worse, if they then insist on their American citizenship and refuse to accept Soviet passports.

In this way the Soviet Government has claimed as its citizens because of alleged former Polish citizenship, persons who still had in their possession Polish documents identifying them as foreigners, children whose fathers had lost Polish citizenship by American naturalization before the children's birth, and women who had lost their claim to Polish citizenship by the American naturalization of their husbands. Poland is taken only as an example since the Soviet position is the same in connection with the other countries part or all of whose prewar territory has been annexed by the Soviet Union. In general, the Soviet Government appears to interpret the laws of these countries to mean that they, like the Soviet Union, regarded their citizenship as obligatory and compulsory for all who had any possible claim to it and emigration to another country as an attempt to escape one's duties to the state.

It should also be noted in most cases even those American citizens who are also clearly Soviet citizens under Soviet law acquired Soviet citizenship through no choice of their own. Soviet agreements with Poland and Czechoslovakia by which certain people had a choice of citizenship were limited by the persons' "nationality," a term which in the Soviet Union refers not to citizenship but to racial or ethnic origin. In the case of Poland, for instance, this right was open to persons of Polish or Jewish nationality only. Those of Russian or Ukrainian nationality were allowed no choice.

Some persons recognized by the Soviet Government as American citizens have been given exit visas only to have their wives and children who were Soviet citizens refused permission to accompany them or join them later.

The Soviet Government refuses to admit that the Embassy can have any legitimate interest in persons considered to be Soviet citizens. When the Embassy has requested the issuance of exit visas to such persons, the Soviet Ministry of Foreign Affairs has replied merely that as Soviet citizens they might apply for visas under the regulations established for Soviet citizens, in other words, that the matter was none of the Embassy's business. Since such requests not only do not help the persons involved but may also attract to them the unfavorable attention of the Soviet authorities the Embassy has ceased presenting direct requests to the Soviet Government in recent months except in the cases of persons who, in the Embassy's opinion, cannot legally be regarded as Soviet citizens. In most cases the best that can be done for all others is to provide them, for presentation to the local authorities, with certificates of their status, and of the desire and ability of their relatives to care for them in the United States, and to inform them of the necessary procedure in applying for exit visas. The Soviet authorities still allow such applications, though they are often made difficult by requests for numerous documents or other technicalities. A final decision however, may take a year or more, and, as indicated above, the applicants do not get visas.

Even in the cases of persons who, on the basis of all evidence available to the Embassy, cannot legally be considered to be Soviet citizens, the Embassy's efforts, as shown above, have had little effect. The facts of the persons citizenship are frequently incorrectly stated by the Soviet authorities, and even when the actual facts are pointed out, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs has never changed a decision that a person was a Soviet citizen, once that decision had been communicated to the Embassy.

In such circumstances the decision as to a person's departure from the Soviet Union obviously rests with the Soviet Government and not with the Embassy, nor is it noticeably influenced by the Embassy's efforts or by such humanitarian factors as tragic family separations. None of the few who have left in recent years had received more help from the Embassy than many others who failed to obtain exit visas. The two widows of Soviet citizens who obtained exit visas in 1947, for example, did so without the Embassy's help. The alien child of an American mother who received a visa in the same year, had been the subject of strong representations on the Embassy's part, but all the Embassy's efforts in another similar case, including a personal approach by the Ambassador to one of the Deputy Foreign Ministers, have had no effect. The one non-American citizen mentioned above as receiving an exit visa since 1947 was a boy who had lost both his parents in a German concentration camp and had no living relatives except in the United States. However, many others whose cases are equally appealing, and one whose case is virtually identical, have received as much help from the Embassy as this boy and have not received visas. For example, in the cases of 18 children with both parents, or the only surviving parent, in the United States, the only effect of the Embassy's efforts, including a personal appeal by Ambassador Smith to Mr. Vyshinsky, the then Deputy Foreign Minister, has been that a number of them have been declared to be Soviet citizens.

The Embassy sympathizes deeply with American citizens separated from relatives in the Soviet Union and will continue to do whatever it considers possible and advisable to help them. It has, however, no means of compelling a change in Soviet policy and can offer no assurance that any resident of the Soviet Union, whatever his citizenship, will be able to secure an exit visa for departure to the United States. The Embassy must further continue to refrain from taking action in individual cases whenever it seems likely that such action would only increase a person's difficulties with local Soviet authorities.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING RESOLUTION VII ADOPTED AT THE CHAPULTEPEC CONFERENCE AT MEXICO IN 1945 DEALING WITH ELIMINATION OF CENTERS OF SUBVERSIVE INFLUENCE AND MEANS OF PREVENTING THE ADMISSION OF DANGEROUS DEPORTEES AND PROPAGANDA AGENTS

In accordance with your request for information concerning action taken by the Chapultepec Conference at Mexico in 1945, concerning the restrictions to be imposed on undesirable aliens and propaganda agents, there is attached hereto a copy of Resolution VII of this Conference: Elimination of Centers of Subversive Influence and Means of Preventing the Admission of Dangerous Deportees and Propaganda Agents.

RESOLUTION VII OF THE FINAL ACT OF THE INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON PROBLEMS OF WAR AND PEACE, MEXICO CITY, MEXICO, FEBRUARY 21–MARCH 8, 1945

VII. ELIMINATION OF CENTERS OF SUBVERSIVE INFLUENCE AND MEANS OF PREVENTING THE ADMISSION OF DANGEROUS DEPORTEES AND PROPAGANDA AGENTS

Whereas the American Republics have affirmed their adherence to the democratic ideal, and it is desirable to safeguard this ideal; the dissemination of totalitarian doctrines in this Continent would endanger the American democratic ideal; the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics recommended in Resolution XVII the adoption by the Governments of the American Republics of a comprehensive series of measures for the prevention of subversive activities by the Axis powers and their satellites and provided for the creation of the Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense to study and coordinate the measures recommended.

In conformity with the objectives of said resolution, the American Republics participating in this Conference have sought to erect, individually and collectively, an effective structure of political defense to counteract the program of nonmilitary warfare of the Axis powers and their satellites.

The Axis powers, although they realize they have lost the war, nevertheless hope to win the peace by reconstructing their centers of influence throughout the world, by disseminating their destructive ideology and by creating discontent and discord among the American Republics.

The dangers inherent in overconfidence require continued vigilance in carrying out and strengthening the measures recommended by the Governments of the American Republics in the pertinent resolutions of the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republic.

The Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace resolves to reaffirm, in accordance with Resolution XVII of the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, the determination of the participating Governments to prevent individuals or groups within their respective jurisdictions from engaging in any activities fomented by the Axis powers or their satellites for the purpose of endangering the individual or collective security and welfare of the American Republics, and accordingly recommends—

1. That the participating Republics intensify, individually and collectively, their efforts to eradicate the remaining centers of Axis subversive influence in the Hemisphere, whether such influence be exercised by the Axis powers or by their satellites, or by the agents of either.

2. That the participating Republics, in addition to any other measures that they individually consider effective to prevent Axis-inspired elements from securing or regaining vantage points from which to disturb or threaten the security or welfare of any Republic, adopt to this end the following specific measures:

(*a*) Measures to prevent any person whose deportation has been deemed necessary for reasons of Continental security from further residing in this Hemisphere, if such residence would be prejudicial to the future security or welfare of the Americas;

(*b*) Measures to prevent the admission to this Hemisphere, now and after the cessation of hostilities, of agents of the Axis powers or their satellites.

3. That the Governments of the participating Republics continue to apply technical measures for the coordination of police activities and the resolutions and recommendations of the Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense.

4. That the Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense prepare and submit to the Governments specific recommendations for the effective execution of the above recommendations and for the gradual readjustment, in accordance with democratic principles, of the political defense structure of the American Republics to the new conditions of the period following the cessation of hostilities.

(Approved at the plenary session of March 6, 1945.)

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE CONCERNING THE POLICIES AND PRACTICES OF THE WESTERN EUROPEAN DEMOCRACIES AND BRITISH COMMONWEALTH NATIONS IN GRANTING ASYLUM TO POLITICAL REFUGEES

DECEMBER 1, 1952.

ASYLUM FOR POLITICAL REFUGEES IN WESTERN EUROPE AND THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH

INTRODUCTION

Asylum to political refugees is generally granted by the Western European and the Western British Commonwealth nations, and in the cases of West Germany, France, and Italy the right to political asylum is set forth in their constitutions. While the administrative procedures and specific laws governing the grant of asylum to political refugees vary from country to country, as indicated in this report, these practices and laws nevertheless conform with the 1951 Geneva Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees. This convention has been signed by all of the Western European countries dealt with in this report except France, and the French Government has declared its intention of adhering to the convention. Although the British Commonwealth countries other than the United Kingdom have not signed the Geneva Convention, which pertains largely to continental rather than oversea problems, their legislation and practices do not conflict with the convention's intent.

None of the Western European countries, either by means of legislation or general administrative practices, prohibit the entry of specific categories of political refugees on the grounds of the refugees' pro-Fascist or pro-Communist views or past or present membership in totalitarian political parties and other organizations. In the absence of any such blanket restrictions, each case is considered on its own merits and in light of the information available on the particular refugee concerned. In general, the Western European countries are subjecting individuals seeking political asylum to increasingly intensive security checks.

I. FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

A. Legal provisions

1. *Allied.*—The granting of asylum to refugees [1] is one of the reserved powers of the Allied High Commissioner which, under law No. 23 of March 17, 1950, granted refugees certain rights in regard to their civil status in Germany and under law No. 10 of October 27, 1949, established the right of the Allied High Commission to expel any alien because of conviction by an Allied court or in the best interests of the Allied High Commission.

2. *German.*—The Basic Law of the Federal Republic provides in article 16 that "the politically persecuted enjoy the right of asylum." This provision is novel in German law and therefore has to be interpreted according to the standards of international law. The right of asylum can be abrogated in cases where it is used for antidemocratic purposes, according to article 18 of the basic law.[2] Articles 16 and 18 have become operative in regard to displaced persons.

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[1] Refugees are defined here as aliens (excluding German citizens or persons assimilable to the status of German citizen) who are stateless or no longer enjoy the protection of their country of origin. The displaced persons form the major group among the refugees.

[2] This is the narrower interpretation and is suggested by Wernicke art. 18. Kommentar zum Bonner Grundegesetz, p. 4. The wider interpretation would permit forfeiture of the right of asylum of any alien who abused one or more of the following basic rights: freedom of the press, teaching, assembly, and association; the secrecy of the mail, postal services, and telecommunications; and the right of property.

By the law of April 25, 1951, on the legal position of homeless aliens in the Federal Republic, displaced persons were given a large number of public and private rights usually reserved for German citizens. The law provided in particular that a displaced person may be deported only for reasons of public security and order; that he may not be deported to a state which would persecute him, and that he may appeal a deportation order to the proper court. This law can be extended to other refugees by the Federal Government with consent of the Bundesrat.

The Federal Republic has signed the United Nations Convention on Refugees, and a United Nations Commissioner for Refugees is located in Bonn.

The Federal Republic has also signed the contractual agreement with the Allied Powers and, subject to ratification, has undertaken in it (1) to implement the above-mentioned law of April 25, 1951; (2) to ratify the United Nations Convention; (3) to enact appropriate asylum legislation; and (4) to observe the above-mentioned Allied High Commission law No. 23 until it is replaced.[3]

B. *Practice*

1. *Allied.*—It has been Allied practice to insure the welfare and protection of bona fide refugees in Western Germany, to shield them against an involuntary return to their country of origin, and to gradually transfer these functions to the Federal Republic. The Allies have insured in particular full maintenance of many refugees, have given them a preferred legal status, and have supported a large emigration program while protecting refugees against deportation to a totalitarian country.

2. *German.*—The Allies have formally transferred the care of the displaced persons to the German authorities, and have let the Federal Republic handle all but in name the problem of asylum for refugees. The Allied High Commission still retains ultimate jurisdiction over such refugees and strives to have the Federal Republic continue refugee care at the high level set by Allied postwar practices.

The German attitude toward non-German political refugees is basically unfriendly, as most of the persons now seeking asylum come from areas, such as Czechoslovakia or Poland, which have been foremost in their expulsion of German ethnic groups. The Germans have complied with Allied requests for favorable treatment of refugees because they wished (1) to do away with the extraterritorial status which refugees in Germany have long enjoyed under Allied protection, (2) to make a favorable impression on world opinion, and (3) to insure continued Western support in solving the problems created by the presence of millions of German refugees within the boundaries of the Federal Republic.

II. FRANCE

France has a long tradition of willingness to grant asylum to political refugees. So strong is this tradition, in fact, that it has become one of the fundamental laws of the Republic and is so stated in the preamble of the constitution. In the years 1918–39 France was the refuge for some 80,000 Russians, and more than a million Central and Eastern Europeans, and 400,000 Spaniards fleeing the civil war. They resided in France under the protection of the League of Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. During the war years of 1940–44 the influx of refugees virtually ceased and those in France were treated with discrimination according to nationality. The postwar years brought a swelling tide of refugees into France. The French Government estimates that there are presently between 360,000 and 380,000 refugees in France (about 160,000 Spaniards, 100,000 Eastern and Central Europeans, and the remainder Russians). Reliable unofficial estimates, however, place the number at approximately 1,000,000.

French policy and practice with regard to political refugees is based on the law of July 25, 1952 (Journal Officiel, July 27, 1952, law No. 52–893), which provides for the creation of an Office for the Protection of Refugees and Stateless Persons. This law was passed to fulfill the accord of February 28, 1950, with the IRO, according to which France agreed to take over direct financial assistance and relief for refugees and assumed the obligation of providing legal and administrative protection for the refugees within its borders.

Any refugee can gain temporary political asylum (entry) in France by merely presenting himself as a refugee at any frontier point of entry (decree of May 2, 1938). His claim for status as a refugee is then investigated. The law of

[3] Ch. VII of the agreement of May 26, 1952.

July 25, 1952 (art. 2), states that the Office for Protection of Refugees and Stateless Persons (Refugee Office) will recognize as refugees—

(1) All persons so recognized by the United Nations High Commissioner of Refugees, and

(2) All persons so designated by the "definitions of article 1 of the Geneva Convention of July 28, 1951, relative to the status of refugees."

In effect these two articles define as a refugee any person who fled his native country or country of national residence out of fear of persecution because of race, religion, nationality, political opinion, or membership in a particular group.

After certification as bona fide refugee, the refugee can turn to the Refugee Office for such documents as will permit him to live a normal civil life and enjoy the protection of domestic legislation and international accords bearing on refugee protection. The Refugee Office is empowered to certify his identity, signature, family, and civil status. It also helps him secure (from the Minister of the Interior, of Labor, etc.) such documents as identity cards, visas, and residence and work permits, so that he can reside and work in France, enter his children in school, travel, etc.

Should an alien be refused refugee status, he has a course of appeal. The law of July 25 provides that a Commission of Appeals examine appeals addressed to it by those affected by "measures within the purview of articles 31, 32, and 33 of the Geneva Convention of July 28, 1951." These articles refer to orders issued by the French Minister of Interior or the prefects of police that refuse entry to, expel, enforce the removal of, or deny the right of residence to, the refugee. The refugee must request a ruling within 1 week of issuance of the order affecting him.

The Refugee Office is not directly concerned with relief and financial assistance for the refugee.

III. SWEDEN, NORWAY, AND DENMARK

No Scandinavian government encourages the arrival of political refugees in the sense that it advertises itself as a haven for the politically persecuted. All of them, however, follow the practice of accepting bona fide political refugees. Such persons are not returned against their will either to the country of origin or to a third country. All of them are permitted to remain in the country, subject to certain regulations. In Sweden, for example, they are forbidden, for a time at least, to engage in political activity or to reside in areas of great housing shortage. In Norway and Sweden, and the same is believed to be true in Denmark, they are also permitted to apply for citizenship after the legally prescribed number of years required of all applicants.

A. Sweden.

Because of its location in the Baltic, Sweden annually receives the largest number of political refugees of the three major Scandinavian countries. Many thousand Baltic refugees were permitted to remain in Sweden after World War II. Each subsequent year additional persons fleeing from various satellite countries have arrived. In June 1952, for example, 5 Latvian fishermen were granted political asylum, as were 27 refugees from Yugoslavia in September of the same year. Periodically, Poles and other nationalities from satellite ships in Swedish ports refuse to return to their home country and are granted political asylum. In addition, the Swedish Government, as a humanitarian gesture, has accepted a few incapacitated refugees from displaced-person camps in Germany.

The practice of the Swedish Government in receiving political refugees is based both on the provisions of the laws and Government policy. It is not obligated by its laws to return political refugees, and on this point it has the strong support of public opinion. Moreover, Sweden's extradition treaties with Poland and the Soviet Union are no longer in effect.

B. Norway

Norway had more than 1,600 refugees at the end of 1951, most of whom arrived as a consequence of World War II. About half of these had been brought to the country by the Norwegian Government since the end of World War II, largely as a humanitarian gesture. Out of the large group of Polish forced laborers brought to Norway by the Germans during World War II, a substantial number refused to return to their native land and were granted political asylum. Only about 60 persons have entered Norway illegally in the postwar period, but these have been permitted to stay as political refugees, as provided by Norwegian law. One Russian and one Pole were granted asylum in December 1950, for example. Apparently because of its location, Norway does not receive annually as many political refugees as Sweden

C. Denmark

Less specific information is available with respect to Danish policy toward political refugees. All of the thousands of German refugees left in Denmark at the end of World War II have been repatriated. A small number of refugees of other nationalities remain in the country. Denmark apparently receives very few political refugees from the satellite countries of Eastern Europe. It is believed that, as in Norway, bona fide political refugees are granted asylum. There are no known instances where Denmark has returned such persons against their will during the postwar period. Moreover, under Danish law, the Minister of Justice is authorized to make arrangements to provide the documents required for residence in Denmark to foreigners who are not in a position to secure from their country of origin the normal papers issued for travel abroad. It is not known, however, how this law is administratively applied.

IV. ITALY

Italy's basic law on the subject of admission of political refugees is found in the constitution, article 10 of which states, "The foreigner, who in his own country, is prevented from effectively exercising the democratic liberties guaranteed by the Italian Constitution, has the right of asylum under conditions established by law. Extradition of the foreigner for political offenses is not permitted."

Article 26 also specifies that in no case may extradition be granted for political offenses.

The legal rights of foreigners in general are defined in No. 16 of the *Disposizioni sulla Legge in Generale* (attached to the Civil Code): "The alien is admitted to the enjoyment of the civil rights granted to the citizen on the basis of reciprocity and excepting the provisions contained in special laws." No specific reference is made to political refugees as such.

Prior to the existence of the IRO, refugees in Italy were, in practice, subject to the discretionary rulings of the police. During the IRO's period of operations, an agreement between the IRO and the Italian Government defined the status of refugees and the procedures concerning their sojourn in the country. In 1951 Italy signed the Geneva Convention on Refugees and, following the dissolution of the IRO, an agreement was signed between the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees and the Italian Government (April 2, 1952). Under this agreement, a joint committee composed of Italian governmental representatives and officials of the High Commissioner's office in Rome was given the task of determining the eligibility of refugees in Italy. A positive determination of the eligibility of a refugee brings him under the constitutional provision in regard to political asylum. He is then considered by the Italian authorites as a "poltical refugee." When a refugee is declared "eligible," he receives through his local questura (police headquarters) a travel document, as well as a sojourn permit valid for 4 months, which will be automatically renewed.

Upon arrival in Italy, a refugee able to identify himself receives a temporary sojourn permit pending inquiry into his eligibility status. If he is able to support himself, he may go where he wishes; otherwise, he is sent to a so-called "open" camp. If unable to identify himself, he is sent to the "closed" camp (for "undesirables" and those of unknown identity) pending identification and determination of eligibility.

The High Commissioner's office has been unable to obtain an over-all agreement of the Italian Government to give refugees the right to work. The Government's attitude is conditioned by the domestic economic conditions of the country, which has about 2,000,000 unemployed persons.

V. NETHERLANDS

The Government of the Netherlands, whose treatment of political refugees is determined by administrative decision rather than specific legislation, contends that it cannot accept large numbers of refugees because of its own population problem. In September 1952, a subcommittee of the U. N. Refugee Commission agreed that the Netherlands was unable to receive additional refugees.

Since 1945 nearly 12,000 refugees were admitted to the Netherlands, and approximately 9,500 have remained, including 2,000 refugees who entered during the occupation or immediately thereafter and who were permitted to remain. Former Polish soldiers and displaced persons found in camps in West Germany are among the other major groups of these refugees.

VI. BELGIUM

Belgium has long been noted for its willingness to grant asylum to political and other refugees. The Belgian Constitution (art. 128) provides that every foreigner who finds himself on Belgian soil enjoys protection in person and property except in cases determined by law. Under the law of October 1, 1833, extradition cannot be granted for offenses of a political nature.

Prior to its signature in 1951 of the Geneva Convention on refugees, the Belgian Government, under the terms of the London Agreement of 1946, had provided refugees with certificates establishing their identity and status, thus enabling them to regularize their position with the local authorities. Also in 1951 Belgium passed a new alien law providing for certain guaranties against the expulsion of refugees. Among these guaranties are provisions that expulsion cannot be pronounced without the prior agreement of a consultative commission composed of an honorary magistrate, a lawyer, and a person chosen at the request of the alien threatened with expulsion from a list drawn up by royal decree.

Political refugees, like other aliens, are subject to the law of February 12, 1897, which provides that aliens legally domiciled in Belgium which disturb public order can be required by the Government to change their place of residence or be deported. Aliens which are not legally domiciled in Belgium can be deported under the law of January 9, 1932.

Effective January 1, 1952, the Belgian Government has applied the provisions of article 17 of the Geneva Convention relating to wage-earning employment. Refugees who fulfill one of the requirements of this article—i. e., who have completed 3 years' uninterrupted residence in Belgium or who have a spouse or children of Belgian nationality—are entitled to obtain the necessary permission to work. This provision, which does not give the refugees complete freedom of access to the profession or employment of their choice, will, nevertheless, greatly assist in the integration of those who are now in Belgium.

There are in Belgium some 60,000 refugees, of whom between 40,000 and 45,000 can, according to the Belgian Government, be considered firmly established; the remaining refugees, many of whom have not yet found work, require, in the opinion of the Belgian Government, individual legal protection from the office of the Commission of Refugees in Brussels. The Belgian Government has instructed its local authorities to reimburse voluntary agencies the amount spent on material assistance to indigent refugees from the time of their arrival until such time as their situation is regularized and they are able to benefit from public assistance.

VII. BRITISH COMMONWEALTH

The United Kingdom and the western Commonwealth countries give political refugees special treatment on an ad hoc basis by administrative procedure rather than by special legislation. The practice in the United Kingdom is typical. Under the Aliens Restriction Act of 1919, an order in council (the Aliens Order, 1920) gave the Home Secretary complete power to make all regulations necessary for immigration. The order excluded certain categories of immigrants from entry, such as lunatics, but even in such cases the Home Secretary was given power to exempt any person or class unconditionally. "There are no formal rules governing the admission of foreigners," the Home Secretary told the House of Commons on June 20, 1951, "and applications are dealt with on their merits. * * *" With these powers, the Home Secretary has admitted large groups of Jews, Czechs, Poles, and others, as well as individuals; but the Home Department in its procedures does not recognize political refugees as a distinct class. Persons seeking asylum, however, are being subjected to intensified security checks. As cases involving political refugees often have considerable political content, the Home Secretary usually passes on them himself; and group cases and the more important cases of individuals may be decided by the Cabinet. There is no appeal other than by further representations to the Home Office or through M. P.'s.

In Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, departmental ministers have similar wide discretionary powers to admit political refugees along with other groups. Political refugees are not distinguished from other groups except by the usual administrative practice of giving them special consideration on an ad hoc basis as a matter of compassion. In Canada political refugees not admissible under ordinary immigration regulations can be admitted by a special order in council. However, such refugees are generally admitted by

administrative expediencies such as permitting their entry as temporary visitors and then, after they are in the country, adjusting their status to that of permanent residents. As all these countries have parliamentary governments with ministerial and cabinet responsibility to Parliament, administrative action on immigration problems is highly flexible and not usually subject to detailed laws.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE, IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION SERVICE, CONCERNING THE EDUCATION, BACKGROUND, AND OTHER QUALIFICATIONS OF HEARING OFFICERS OF THE IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION SERVICE

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE,
Immigration and Naturalization Service,
Washington, D. C., November 3, 1952.

MR. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President, Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington, D. C.

DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: This refers to your letter of October 13, 1952, requesting certain information concerning the education, background, and other qualifications of hearing officers of the Immigration and Naturalization Service for use in connection with the Commission's consideration of the administrative processes of the Service.

The attached questionnaire has been completed on the basis of the best information available within the time limit fixed by you for its submission. The information contained therein is based on the laws and regulations now in effect. Some changes will take place on December 24, 1952, the effective date of the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952. At the present time hearings on the admissibility of aliens are conducted by boards of special inquiry while hearings on the deportability of aliens are conducted by officers classified as deportation examiners. Beginning December 24, 1952, we plan to establish one position, the duties of which would include the conducting of both types of hearing, the incumbent to be known as a special inquiry officer.

In accordance with telephone instructions from Mr. Charles Gordon of your staff, item 11 (a), (b), (c), and (d) of the questionnaire has been construed to call for information regarding types of work performed by hearing officers immediately prior to their becoming hearing officers.

Sincerely,

BENJAMIN G. HABBERTON,
Acting Commissioner.

PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION QUESTIONNAIRE—INFORMATION CONCERNING HEARING OFFICERS OF THE IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION SERVICE

NOTE.—By the term "hearing officers" the Commission has reference only to those officers of the Immigration and Naturalization Service who are engaged in conducting hearings on the admissibility or deportability of aliens.

1. How many full-time hearing officers were engaged exclusively on their duties, as such, on October 1, 1952? (If this date is not practicable, please state, and use as recent a date as possible.)

Date, October 1, 1952; number 119. (Deportation examiner, chairman (board of special inquiry), and second member (board of special inquiry).)

(NOTE.—All percentages requested, unless otherwise indicated, relate to the number in answer to No. 1.)

1 (*a*). How many hearing officers who work only part time, as such, were engaged on the date under No. 1?

(A) Of the 119 given in item 1, above, only 1 officer, a second member (board of special inquiry), also performed other duties (primary inspection).

(B) One deportation examiner worked part time assisting in Adjudications Division on fine adjudications, bond breaches, etc. Several hundred officers were assigned part time to assist in conducting hearings on admissibility as chairman or second member (board of special inquiry). No accurate figure available as assignments made on rotating basis from available officers, usually immigrant

inspectors. Time spent on such assignment varies from several hours per month to 50 percent of one officer's time. Six districts reported no part-time officers.

1 (*b*). Specify what other principal duties, functions, or services were performed by the officers under 1 (*a*) in addition to their work as hearing officers. (Use date under No. 1 as base.)

With but few exceptions, the principal duties were those of immigrant inspector. Other duties were those of investigator, naturalization examiner, officer in charge, adjudications, processing administrative fine cases.

2. Please state the number of hearing officers on duty as of the above date (under No. 1) in each of the following district offices:

District office:	*Number of hearing officers (full time)*
New York, N. Y.	28
Boston, Mass.	5
Detroit, Mich.	6
Chicago, Ill.	5
San Francisco, Calif.	11
Miami, Fla.	5

3. Do the totals given in item 2 constitute the full authorized totals under current applicable appropriations? No. (If "No," please give the authorized totals, with explanation.)

Authorized total, 69. (The difference of nine results from vacancies and temporary assignments to other duties.)

4. Please list the standard or basic qualifications established for hearing officers (include basic job description).

At the present time, hearings on the admissibility of aliens are conducted by a board of special inquiry consisting of a chairman, a second member, and a secretary. The duties of the board are shown in the attached position description (exhibit 1) headed "Hearing Examiner (BSI Chairman)." Hearings on the deportability of aliens are conducted by officers with the classification title "Deportation Examiner." Their duties are shown in the enclosed exhibit 2 headed "Deportation Examiner."

The duties of the position of chairman (BSI) have been performed by immigrant inspectors who were selected on the basis of years of experience and demonstrated satisfactory performance. The qualifications required for the position of deportation examiner follow closely the requirements of the Civil Service Commission for the position of hearing examiner. Please see enclosed exhibit 3 for statement of qualification standard.

The Service is planning to incorporate the duties of these two positions into one position to be known beginning December 24, 1952, as special inquiry officer. New qualifications standards will be established which are expected to be no less than those required by the Civil Service Commission for the position of hearing examiner.

5. What range of grades, with corresponding salaries, is there under civil service for hearing officers and what are the principal differences in duty between those in the lowest grade and those in the middle and highest grades?

Chairman (board of special inquiry), GS–9, $5,060–$5,810, per annum; immigrant inspector (acting as board member), GS–7, $4,205–$4,955 per annum; deportation examiner, GS–11, $5,940–$6,940 per annum. Exhibits 1 and 2, it is believed, will show these differences.

(Please see remarks under question 4, above, relating to incorporation of the duties of these positions into one position on December 24, 1952.)

5 (*a*). What promotion or other opportunities are there within the Immigration and Naturalization Service to encourage other employees and officers to become hearing officers?

Vacancies in the position of hearing examiner (BSI chairman) are made after careful consideration of the relative qualifications of employees meeting the job requirements. Original appointments in vacancies in the position of deportation examiner are filled on the basis of a noncompetitive Immigration and Naturalization Service examination.

5 (*b*). What opportunities are offered by the Immigration and Naturalization Service to persons in other Government agencies and among the general public to apply for the position of hearing officer?

This service fills hearing-officer vacancies by promotion from within the Service. Appointments to the position of immigrant inspector are made by selection from registers established by the Civil Service Commission as a result of

a competitive examination for immigrant inspector. This was a Nation-wide examination, and appointees from this register, when they obtain the necessary qualifying experience, are eligible to apply for the examination for deportation examiner and are considered for promotion to hearing examiner (BSI chairman) along with Service employees of many years' experience.

5 (*c*). What promotion opportunities are offered in the Immigration and Naturalization Service to hearing officers?

In filling vacancies in higher-graded positions all employees in lower grades are considered for promotion. Hearing officers receive the same consideration as given to other Service employees who meet the requirements.

5 (*d*). What Immigration and Naturalization Service officers exercise administrative supervision over hearing officers? (Please give details of the type and extent of such supervision.)

The Assistant Commissioner, Inspections and Examinations Division, in the central office and, under his general direction, the Chief of the Inquiry Branch of that Division exercise administrative supervision over hearing officers throughout the Service. In the individual districts, no supervision is exercised over the hearing officers in any manner which would interfere with the conduct of the hearings, the decisions reached by the hearing officers, or the preparation of their decisions. In those matters the hearing officers must use their complete independent judgment. The district directors do, however, supervise the scheduling and assignment of cases, determination of workloads, work reports, leave, etc.

5 (e). What Immigration and Naturalization Service officers are authorized to review or revise the determinations of hearing officers? Please explain.

Under the present regulation a hearing officer's decision in an expulsion case is (1) that the alien be deported, or (2) that the proceedings be terminated, or (3) that the alien's deportation be suspended, or (4) that the alien be granted voluntary departure at his own expense in lieu of deportation with the further order that if he fails to depart within the time granted or any extension thereof he be deported, or (5) that the alien be permitted to depart voluntarily at his own expense in lieu of deportation with the additional privilege of preexamination, with the further order that if he fails to depart within the time granted or any extension thereof he be deported, or (6) that such other action be taken in the proceedings as may be required for the appropriate determination of the same [8 CFR 151.5 (c)]. The hearing officers' decisions described above become final under the present regulation except (1) when the alien or his counsel or representative takes exception to any specific finding of fact or conclusion of law as to the deportability, or (2) when the alien or his counsel or representative takes exception to a denial of an application for suspension of deportation, or (3) when the alien or his counsel or representative takes exception to a finding that the alien has failed to establish statutory eligibility for voluntary departure, or (4) when the alien or his counsel or his representative takes exception to a denial of an application for voluntary departure, with or without the additional privilege of preexamination, in a case in which the alien had been in the United States for a period of 5 years or more at the time the warrant of arrest in deportation proceedings was served on him, or (5) when the alien or his counsel or representative takes exception to a denial of an application for the exercise of the discretion contained in the 7th proviso to section 3 of the Immigration Act of February 5, 1917 [8 CFR 151.5 (e)]. When an exception is taken in one or more of the manners provided above, it is regarded as an appeal and the case goes directly to the Board of Immigration Appeals.

Notwithstanding the foregoing statements, the regulation permits the Commissioner of Immigration and Naturalization, on his own motion, to direct that any case or class of cases be submitted to him for review and consideration as to certification to the Board of Immigration Appeals for decision by the Board [8 CFR 151.5 (g)]. When such a case reaches the Commissioner, he can do one of two things, namely, approve the decision of the hearing officer, or certify the case to the Board of Immigration Appeals for decision. Under no circumstances can a decision of a hearing officer be revised in the central office of the Immigration and Naturalization Service.

The foregoing regulations have been construed to permit a district director to submit a report to the Commissioner concerning any decision which appears to him to require certification. Such a case is called up for review and consideration by the Commissioner, but, as indicated above, he cannot change the hearing officer's decision but, if he disagrees with it, must certify it to the Board of Immigration Appeals for decision.

These comments concern the activities of hearing officers relating to the conduct of hearings on the deportability of aliens. Until the regulations have been published with respect to the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952, it is not possible to state specifically what Immigration and Naturalization Service officers will be authorized to review or revise the determinations of the hearing officers.

6. What is the average number of years hearing officers (under No. 1) have worked for or been employed by the Immigration and Naturalization Service in any and all capacities? Average number years, 19. Solely in the capacity of hearing officer? Average number years, 7.

7. What is the average beginning age of a hearing officer? 38 years.

8. Please list the principal legal and administrative causes for reprimand, suspension, transfer, or removal, of hearing officers:

The principal legal and administrative causes for reprimand, suspension, transfer, or removal of hearing officers are the same as those for any other civil-service employee. Title 5, chapter I of the Code of Federal Regulations sets forth some of the Civil Service Commission's requirements on this subject. Part 9 thereof, section 9.101, directs that the employing agency shall remove, demote, or reassign to another position any employee in the competitive service whose conduct or capacity is such that his removal, demotion, or reassignment will promote the efficiency of the service. It provides that the grounds for disqualification of an applicant for examination given in part 2, section 2.104 (a) (2) through (8), shall be included among those constituting sufficient cause for removal of an employee.

Chapter C2 of the Civil Service Commission's Federal Personnel Manual (p. C2–27) sets forth certain offenses for which, under express provisions of law and regulation, employees may be punished by removal or even by fine or imprisonment.

In addition to the above, supervisory personnel of the Immigration and Naturalization Service are required to report promptly, through channels, to the district director allegations of misconduct or dereliction of duty which are believed to warrant formal admonition, suspension, disciplinary action, demotion, or dismissal. A list of types of offenses which are required to be reported is contained in outstanding administrative instructions (S1–S8 of the Immigration and Naturalization Service Supplements to the Federal Personnel Manual). A copy of this list is included as exhibit 4.

9. Please explain briefly the main difficulties and problems confronting hearing officers, with which they must contend in the regular course of their duties:

Bearing in mind that, without exception, the hearing must be fair and impartial, a hearing officer may encounter difficulty in limiting testimony to material questions, ruling on objections and motions which in some cases are obviously for the purpose of confusing the issue and delaying the proceedings unnecessarily. Requests for adjournments also present a problem since it is often difficult to determine which requests are bona fide and which are frivolous.

10. How many hearing officers—

(*a*) Possess baccalaureate degrees? Number, 32; percent, 26.8.

(*b*) Possess law degrees but are not admitted to the bar? Number, 5; percent, 4.3.

(*c*) Are admitted to the bar? Number, 16; percent, 13.4.

11. How many hearing officers—

(*a*) Were practicing attorneys before they became hearing officers? None.

(*b*) Were engaged in work (other than that of hearing officer) with, or were employed by, the Immigration and Naturalization Service before they became hearing officers? Number, 119.

Please specify the principal type of positions or work in which these under 11 (*b*) were previously engaged:

Types of work:	*Number so engaged*
Immigrant inspector	74
Investigator	18
Miscellantous positions such as naturalization examiner, patrol inspector, officer in charge, etc	27

(*c*) Held positions in, or worked for, other (than the Immigration and Naturalization Service) agencies of the Federal (or State) Government? None.

(*d*) Held positions or did work not enumerated or included under 11 (*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)? None.

12. What was the average percent rate of turn-over among hearing officers in the last 5-year period (1948–52)? Average percent rate turn-over, 13.8.

13. Please give below any additional information, particularly concerning in-service training, if any, or comments (and/or submit any printed or other material) which, in your opinion, will assist the Commission in ascertaining the education and background of hearing officers of your service:

Hearing officers are furnished with the following instructional material:

1. Immigration and nationality manuals, which summarize administrative and judicial interpretations of the laws and regulations.

2. Service operations instructions, which instruct officers as to the methods of enforcing the laws and regulations.

3. Copies of the volumes Administrative Decisions Under the Immigration and Nationality Laws, and of loose-leaf releases Interim Decisions, which set forth administrative policies in exclusion and deportation cases.

4. General counsel opinions, which resolve legal questions not previously clarified by court decisions.

In addition, those officers have, since 1946, been offered a correspondence training program which contains studies on subjects related to their work. The salient feature of any such study is its drill on hypothetical situations. The students are given problems containing situations such as they would meet in their work, and are required to solve the problems involved. Central office reviewers criticize those solutions.

An intensive 2 weeks' training was given, between April and September 1951, to every deportation examiner of the service. All classes were held in the central office in Washington. They coincided with the period during which most of our present deportation examiners were being appointed. Insofar as possible, an employee who had just been appointed as deportation examiner was sent to the school before he assumed his new duties. Every effort was made to provide deportation examiners with training commensurate with the importance of their duties and responsibilities. Classes were held on the following topics:

1. Hearing procedures.
2. Specialized instruction on grounds for deportation.
3. Principles of administrative evidence.
4. Sources and procurement of documentary evidence.
5. Discretionary relief from deportation.
6. Preparation of hearing officer's findings and order.
7. Administrative review of hearing officer's findings.
8. Judicial review of administrative findings.
9. Precedent cases governing administrative policy.
10. Special procedures required in subversive cases.
11. Background drills in procedures of inspections and examinations and in grounds for exclusion and deportation.
12. Regulations governing detention, parole, and expulsion of aliens.

Additional training is planned in connection with the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1952 and periodically thereafter to the extent permitted by funds available for training purposes.

EXHIBIT 1

HEARING EXAMINER (BSI CHAIRMAN), GS–9

Under general supervision the incumbent acts as chairman of a board of special inquiry, a quasi-judicial body created by the immigration and naturalization statutes for the purpose of determining the admissibility of aliens who have applied for admission to the United States, either as immigrants or nonimmigrants, and who have failed to establish on primary inspection, their right to admission to the United States. The chairman, who is also a member, presides over the board, which consists of three members.

The board considers the evidence bearing on the application for admission to the United States, including formal interrogation of the applicant and his witnesses under oath, and the presentation of Government evidence and questioning of Government witnesses. Incumbent is responsible for verbatim recording and transcribing of the hearing by the secretary-member. The majority vote of the board for the admission or exclusion of the alien prevails, unless appeal is taken to the Attorney General by the applicant or a dissenting member of the board.

Applicants before the board are frequently accompanied by attorneys or other representatives for the pleading of their case. Incumbent must be completely familiar with all of the immigration and nationality statutes, regulations, operations instructions, instruction circulars, and the latest decisions of the Federal courts, our central office, and the Attorney General's Board of Immigration Appeals, insofar as they relate to the admissibility of the various classes of aliens and the acquisition of United States citizenship and expatriation. Incumbent must have working knowledge of the general rules of evidence.

He interrogates the aliens and witnesses in such a way that the various details of the record will be set forth in a uniform and orderly manner, and that all causes for exclusion, if existing, will be covered during the hearing and included in the record and irrelevant matters excluded. He is presiding inspector, rules on evidence, and controls interrogation by other members.

The incumbent is required to insure the conduct of a hearing which will protect the interests of the applicant and the Government, since frequently such hearings are reviewed as to fairness and other matters in the Federal courts on writs of habeas corpus.

Dictation and review, after transcription, of related correspondence and records of board of special inquiry hearings. Prepares findings of fact, conclusions of law, and orders in each case.

Exhibit 2

Deportation Examiner GS-942-11

With complete latitude for independent action in presiding at the hearing and in reaching a decision, the incumbent serves as a hearing officer in formal hearings in deportation proceedings pursuant to immigration laws of the United States.

The proceedings at which hearing officers in this grade preside are moderately difficult and important. They are characterized largely by (*a*) few complicated or controverted facts, (*b*) no or few protestations against proposals made, (*c*) moderately complex legal and technical matters, (*d*) simple or normal contentions and issues, (*e*) small records, and (*f*) narrow effect of decisions.

When the case has been processed thoroughly by investigators, the respondent has been taken into custody on a warrant of arrest and has been accorded certain preliminary privileges, the case is assigned to the incumbent for a hearing. The incumbent is required to administer oaths and affirmations; issue subpenas authorized by law; receive relevant evidence; rule upon offers of proof, motions made during the course of the hearing, and upon all objections to the introduction of evidence; take or cause depositions to be taken; dispose of procedural requests, including admissibility of stipulations; exercise the authority conferred by law upon the Attorney General to grant the privilege of voluntary departure and preexamination; present all available evidence bearing upon the alien's liability to deportation; conduct the interrogation of the alien and of the witness on behalf of the Government and the examination or cross-examination of the alien's witnesses; lodge additional charges against the alien in addition to those stated in the warrant of arrest, if any exist, and present evidence upon such charges in like manner as on the charges contained in the warrant of arrest; inquire thoroughly into the alien's statutory eligibility for discretionary relief if the alien has applied for relief from deportation; consider the facts in the record and arguments and contentions, if any are made; make decisions on the basis of reliable, probative, and substantial evidence in the records; and take any other action consistent with applicable provisions of law and regulations. Since the hearing officer must exercise the combined functions of a hearing officer and an examining officer, he must be able to conduct the hearing in an impartial manner so as to fully and adequately safeguard the interests of the respondent as well as those of the Government.

The incumbent shall, in order to assure a fair hearing, advise the respondent of his right to be represented by counsel or another qualified representative and, if necessary, afford the respondent an opportunity to arrange therefor. Where additional charges are lodged, the incumbent shall advise the respondent of his right to have a reasonable period of time within which to meet such additional charges, if desired. He must also determine solely within his own discretion when, within the range of permissible statutes, he will advise the respondent of the latter's privilege to apply for relief from deportation.

The incumbent shall not perform any duties inconsistent with the duties and responsibilities of an adjudicating officer and in addition to presiding at formal hearings in deportation proceedings, he shall also serve as hearing officer in

hearings required to be held in carrying out other administrative functions of the Service.

The incumbent may grant such continuances of the hearing as he may deem reasonable at his own instance or upon the motion of the respondent or his counsel or representative. The hearing officer will be required to preside over more than one case at the same hearing where two or more cases involving common questions of law or fact are ordered consolidated with respect to any or all matters in issue in the cases.

In any case which he deems appropriate, the hearing officer may, at the conclusion of the hearing, state for the record in the presence of the alien or his counsel or representative, a brief summary of the evidence, findings of fact, and conclusions of law, and his disposition of the case.

Except in those cases where the incumbent's decision is orally stated for the record, the incumbent shall, as soon as practicable after the conclusion of the hearing, prepare in writing a decision, signed by him, which shall set forth a summary of the evidence adduced and his findings of fact and conclusions of law as to deportability. In addition, where the respondent has applied for relief from deportation the incumbent's decision shall also contain a separate determination as to whether or not the incumbent is satisfied, on the basis of the evidence presented, as to the alien's statutory eligibility for the relief requested. The decision of the incumbent shall be concluded with a statement of his disposition of the case which shall be (1) that the alien be deported, or (2) that the warrant of arrest be canceled, or (3) that the alien be found to have established statutory eligibility for suspension of deportation, or (4) that the alien be granted voluntary departure at his own expense in lieu of deportation with or without the additional privilege of preexamination, or (5) that such other action be taken in the proceedings as may be required for the appropriate determination of the same.

The decisions of the hearing officer in cases involving charges other than those based on criminal, subversive, or immoral grounds are final and not subject to review unless the alien or his counsel or representative takes exceptions thereto.

The incumbent shall conduct the hearing in a manner tantamount to a judicial trial.

In properly carrying out the duties specified above, certain other duties and responsibilities befall the incumbent. He must understand and apply the provisions of the Constitution of the United States. He must possess thorough knowledge of the pertinent provisions of the basic law and regulations and rules of the agency issued thereunder, including past immigration laws and regulations. He must possess thorough knowledge of the pertinent Presidential proclamations and Executive orders, treaties with and among foreign nations, applicable regulations and the nationality and citizenship laws of the United States and foreign countries. As to these he must know or ascertain judicial and administrative precedents. He must also ascertain and apply foreign and domestic laws regarding marriage, divorce, legitimation of children, domestic relations, adoption, residence, domicile, and crimes. He must ascertain and apply local laws concerning pardon for crime as well as mere restoration of civil rights. The incumbent must understand the doctrine of res adjudicata and the application of domestic and foreign court decisions in the various jurisdictions when those decisions interpret or apply statutes which become involved in deportation proceedings. The application also of State Department regulations is required most frequently. He must apply the appropriate laws and United States Public Health Service regulations concerning afflictions of aliens, must ascertain and apply the meaning of certain medical terms and must understand and apply various statutes relative to duty to pay for treatment obtained in public institutions.

In evaluating the evidence that has been presented, he must be able to determine whether there is sufficient to support the charges against the respondent and in so doing, he must in appropriate cases determine whether that evidence indicates that the crime for which the alien may be deported is one involving moral turpitude.

The incumbent must understand and apply all the applicable laws in such a way as to avoid embarrassment in our diplomatic relations with foreign countries and consequently must apply scrupulously all the laws and regulations applicable to foreign government officials and aliens admitted to the United States pursuant to the International Organizations Immunities Act.

The decision of the incumbent must reflect all the matters mentioned above and such other matters that may be pertinent in the determination of the case, and the decision must be one tantamount in quality to that of a judge sitting in a court of law.

The incumbent must have the ability to conduct hearing in a dignified, orderly, and impartial manner; ability to determine credibility of witnesses; ability to sift and analyze the evidence, apply agency and court decisions, and prepare clear and concise statements of fact and law and orders. The incumbent must possess sound judgment, judicial temperament, and poise.

EXHIBIT 3

QUALIFICATIONS STANDARD FOR DEPORTATION EXAMINER

Applicants must meet experience requirement established by agreement with the Civil Service Commission and set forth in that agency's Examining Circular EC–17, issued October 21, 1947. Generally, the Commission requires that all applicants must have had progressively responsible experience which has demonstrated conclusively their ability to conduct hearings in a dignified, orderly, and impartial manner; determine credibility of witnesses; analyze evidence; apply agency and court decisions; prepare clear and concise statements of fact, law, and orders; and exercise sound judgment. The applicants must also show that they are persons of judicial temperament and poise. The Commission requires 6 years' total experience, 3 years of general experience, and 3 years of special experience.

The general experience must have been progressively responsible experience obtained through legal practice or technical work performed in a field appropriate to the field in which hearings are conducted, such as rates, finance, violations, licenses, benefits, or regulations.

The specialized experience must have been obtained in legal proceedings in one or more of the categories listed below:

(*a*) Experience as judge, master, or referee of a court of record; or

(*b*) Experience as member, officer, or employee of a governmental regulatory body, who conducted formal hearings; made or recommended decisions on the basis of the record of such hearings; was responsible for the preparation or presentation of cases; or had administrative charge and responsibility for the successful completion of cases conducted before a court of record or governmental regulatory body; or

(*c*) Experience which has included responsibility for the preparation or presentation of cases conducted before a governmental regulatory body or a court of record.

Experience with this Service has been accepted by the Commission as qualifying is as follows:

(*a*) *General experience.*—(1) Experience as an immigrant inspector; (2) experience as a naturalization examiner; (3) experience as an investigator; (4) experience gained outside the Service in the general practice of law.

(*b*) *Specialized experience.*—(1) Experience gained conducting warrant hearings in deportation cases; (2) experience as a hearing examiner (review); (3) BSI experience; (4) experience in the general practice of law when coupled with at least 1 year of (1), (2), or (3) above, or any combination thereof.

In addition, the above experience must have included participation in a sufficient number of important cases comparable to those coming before Federal regulatory bodies, to demonstrate a familiarity with problems which arise in the field of administrative law, and an ability to deal with those problems in a satisfactory manner.

EXHIBIT 4

CHAPTER S1—SEPARATION: REMOVAL, SUSPENSION, DISCIPLINARY, DEMOTION, FORMAL ADMONITION OR REPRIMAND

TYPES OF OFFENSES TO BE REPORTED[1]

Unauthorized absence from duty
Neglect of duty, including:
- Withholding information which should be reported
- Sleeping on duty
- Neglecting to observe safety precautions
- Loss of or damage to Government property
- Permitting escape of detainee

Insubordination, including:
- Disobedience to superior officer
- Assault of superior officer
- Disrespect to superior officer
- Inciting others to insubordination

Fraudulent and deceptive practices, including:
- Falsification in obtaining appointment
- Falsification in connection with leave of absence
- Falsification in connection with claim upon the United States
- Theft of Government property
- Receipt of stolen Government property
- Unauthorized disclosure of confidential information
- Removal, alteration, concealment, destruction, or false creation of Government records
- Misuse or misappropriation of Government property or funds
- Acceptance of gratuities or bribes

Misconduct relating to duty, including:
- Solicitation for attorney, bonding company, etc.
- Use of "third degree" methods on detainee or others
- Assault of detainee, coworkers, or others
- Immoral indecent conduct or solicitation with detainee or others
- Intoxication on duty

Conduct unbecoming a Government employee, including:
- Use of official position for personal gain
- Chronic indebtedness
- Intoxication under circumstances prejudicial to best interests of service
- Failure to observe common standards of propriety, decency, or morality to extent prejudicial to best interests of service

Conduct in violation of statutory regulations, including:
- Assist claimant in prosecution of claim against United States
- Engaging in prohibited political activities; soliciting contributions
- Holding State or local office
- Engaged in subversive activities
- Refusal to testify as required by civil service rule XIV
- Acceptance of dual Federal employment
- Receipt of non-Federal salary for services performed in line of official duty
- Instruction of applicant for civil service examination

[1] This list is not intended to limit kinds of cases in which disciplinary action may be necessary. See also Federal Personnel Manual, Table of Miscellaneous Offenses, C2-28, and following pages.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE, IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION SERVICE, CONCERNING THE SALARY RATES OF OFFICERS CONDUCTING FORMAL HEARINGS IN EXCLUSION AND EXPULSION PROCEEDINGS

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE,
IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION SERVICE,
Washington 25, D. C., November 7, 1952.

MR. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, Presidential Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington 25, D. C.

DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: Reference is made to a recent telephone conversation between Mr. Charles Gordon of your staff and Mr. Frederick L. Cuneo, our Director of Personnel.

Mr. Gordon requested certain information concerning the salary rates of officers of this Service engaged in the conduct of formal hearings in exclusion and expulsion proceedings.

In June 1949 the Service established the position of hearing examiner (BSI chairman) CAF (GS) 9, the incumbents of which served as presiding officers of three-man boards conducting hearings in exclusion proceedings. The salary rates of the grade 9 level at the time the position was established were $4,470.60 to $5,232 per annum. Current salary rates for this grade are $5,060 to $6,185 per annum.

In March 1950 subsequent to the rendering of the Supreme Court decision placing the conduct of deportation hearings under the provisions of the Administrative Procedure Act we established the position of hearing examiner (deportation) GS–11, the incumbents of which conducted formal hearings in expulsion proceedings. In October 1950, due to legislation removing the conduct of deportation hearings from the control of certain provisions of the Administrative Procedure Act, the hearing examiner position was abolished and the Service established in its stead the position of deportation examiner GS–11. The salary rates of the GS–11 level in June and October 1950 were $5,400 to $6,400 per annum. Current rates are $5,940 to $6,940 per annum.

Prior to the dates quoted above exclusion and expulsion hearings were in general conducted by immigrant inspectors. The salary rates (Reed-Jenkins Act) for this position in June 1949 were $3,100 to $4,328 per annum. In May 1950, after the position had been brought under the Classification Act of 1949 in the GS–7 level, the salary rates were $3,825 to $4,575 per annum. Current salary rates for immigrant inspectors GS–7 are $4,205 to $5,330 per annum.

I trust that the above information will answer Mr. Gordon's inquiry, and if we can furnish you with additional information, please do not hesitate to communicate with us.

Sincerely,

ARGYLE R. MACKEY,
Commissioner.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE, IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION SERVICE, CONCERNING DETENTION OF ALIENS AND THE EXECUTION OF ORDERS OF DEPORTATION OF THE JUSTICE DEPARTMENT

OCTOBER 24, 1952.

MR. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington, D. C.

DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: This will refer to your letter of October 8, 1952, requesting information for consideration by the Commission on the problems involved in the detention of aliens and in the execution of orders of deportation.

We have endeavored to furnish the desired information insofar as it was available to this office. The data attached follows the numerical sequence of your letter.

With regards to parts 1 and 2, the usual and average periods of detention are shown in the charts. The number of aliens detained by the service for the fiscal year ending June 23, 1952, totaled 192,518 for an average of 6.2 days' detention for each alien.

During the past year the number of Chinese nationals in detention has been reduced as a result of an administrative order which permitted the district directors to parole Chinese aliens whenever in their discretion such parolees would not be prejudicial to the best interests of the United States. Additionally, the number of Chinese nationals held for deferred inspection, which included investigations and the taking of testimony concerning relationship issues, will be practically eliminated under the new procedure involving the issuance of unqualified United States passports.

The charts show detailed data concerning the 4,959 cases in which final orders of deportation were outstanding on October 1, 1952.

The principal causes of inability to procure travel documents are—

(1) Loss of nationality due to numerous causes, such as changes in territorial jurisdiction, prescribed absences from country of nativity or nationality, service in armed forces of other countries, etc.

(2) Arbitrary refusal, notably of the U. S. S. R. and satellites, to permit the return of its nationals in deportation proceedings.

(3) Refusal to accept mentally defective aliens requiring institutional care due to lack of such facilities.

(4) Isolated instances where nationality was established and the refusal to issue travel documents was based upon an adjudication, by the other countries involved, of the grounds upon which our orders of deportation were entered.

(5) Inability to establish claimed nationality of alien.

As to category 2, above-mentioned, it should be noted that satellite countries have in a number of cases issued travel documents to Communists under deportation proceedings who are not nationals of those countries. For instance, many Greek Communists have been permitted to enter Poland from this country as deportees although they have declined to permit the return of Polish nationals.

You have asked whether the Service has any suggestions for legislative or administrative action to cope with the problem raised by inability to execute orders of deportation. In that regard, the provisions of the Hobbs bill (H. R. 10) in the Eightieth Congress as modified by section 23 of the Internal Security Act of 1950, and more recently by section 242 of Public Law 414, were apparently designed to assist the United States in enforcing the departure of certain classes of deportable aliens for whom documents cannot be secured. While they have not been as effective as had been hoped, they have been of some assistance in ridding the country of deportable aliens, notably a number of Communists whom the Service would otherwise have been unable to deport. We therefore can think of no helpful legislation likely of passage at this time.

As to administrative action the Service has, since the passage of the Internal Security Act of 1950, held in detention, pending deportation, a greater number of aliens than had been the practice to detain theretofore. This action has been confined largely to those of the smuggled alien, stowaway, other illegal entrant, Communist, and criminal classes. It is believed that this action has been in keeping with the spirit and purpose of the statutes just mentioned, and the Government, with few exceptions, has been upheld by the courts.

We have long been convinced that effective law enforcement requires that deportable aliens who have entered the United States illegally, and who have no claim to any kind of discretionary relief under the law other than that of the voluntary departure privilege, be apprehended and deported without delay. Generally they should not be released under bond, or otherwise, and permitted to continue their illegal presence in the United States for months, and even years as has happened in far too many cases in the past. The latter method of handling illegal entrants was leading to a serious breakdown in immigration law enforcement in that it placed a premium upon the violation of our laws and encouraged numerous other aliens to risk the illegal way of entering the United States. We are satisfied that word which has gone abroad of the Service's removing the advantages of illegal entry by keeping such entrants in custody pending their deportation has acted as a strong deterrent to those who would come here in violation of our laws.

Therefore, as to suggested administrative action to cope with the problem by inability to execute orders of deportation, we believe that the Government should avail itself to the fullest extent of the detention provisions of section 23 of the Internal Security Act and, when it becomes effective, to section 242 of Public Law 414, not only as to those aliens in whose cases the Service cannot procure travel documents but in the cases of all aliens who are in the United States illegally who are not eligible for any form of discretionary relief, and who refuse to depart from the United States, continuously, of course, bearing in mind

that there will always be cases requiring special action because of humanitarian or other considerations.

Sincerely,

BENJAMIN G. HABBERTON,
Acting Commissioner.

PARTS 1 AND 2

Number of persons detained under order or authority of the Immigration and Naturalization Service during fiscal year 1952

(a) In exclusion proceedings, detained in excess of 3 days:		
Under exclusion proceedings	2,607	
Deferred for further inspection	4,905	
Total (a)		7,512
(b) In deportation proceedings:		
Under deportation proceedings	38,959	
Without formal proceedings, interim detention in aid of voluntary departure pending arrangements for transportation	124,554	
Total (b)		163,513
(c) For any other purpose	114	
Total (c)		114
Grand total		171,139

Number of persons detained under order or authority of the Immigration and Naturalization Service during fiscal year 1952

A. IN EXCLUSION PROCEEDINGS, DETAINED IN EXCESS OF 3 DAYS

District	Applicants deferred for further inspection	Period of detention (in days)		Applicants Under exclusion proceedings	Period of detention (in days)		Total
		Usual	Average		Usual	Average	
St. Albans							
Boston	236	10	12	26	10	12	262
New York	3,384	2	4	964	12	19	4,348
Philadelphia				32	15	37	32
Baltimore				46	4	8	46
Miami				316	6	11	316
Buffalo							
Detroit							
Chicago							
Kansas City							
Seattle				142	10	15	142
San Francisco	1,285	10	17	602	8	36	1,887
San Antonio				4		8	4
El Paso				1		4	1
Los Angeles				165	14	23	165
Honolulu				309	12	13	309
Total	4,905			2,607			7,512

Number of persons detained under order or authority of the Immigration and Naturalization Service during fiscal year 1952—Continued

B. IN DEPORTATION PROCEEDINGS

District	Departed without formal proceedings	Period of detention (in days)		Under deportation proceedings	Period of detention (in days)		Total
		Usual	Average		Usual	Average	
St. Albans				97	18	20	97
Boston				395	10	12	395
New York				6,566	25	39	6,566
Philadelphia				505	5	23	505
Baltimore				206	4	8	206
Miami				3,681	5	8	3,681
Buffalo				439	5	15	439
Detroit	111	2	2	732	21	28	873
Chicago	2,271	2	3	567	8	9	2,838
Kansas City	949	2	2	633	7	8	1,582
Seattle				811	12	15	811
San Francisco	9,618	2	2	1,069	5	7	10,687
San Antonio	50,851	2	2	10,684	4	5	61,535
El Paso	2,018	2	2	7,344	2	3	9,362
Los Angeles	58,706	2	2	5,187	3	4	63,893
Honolulu				43	35	52	43
Total	124,554			38,959			163,513

C. FOR PURPOSE OTHER THAN EXCLUSION OR DEPORTATION PROCEEDINGS

	Number of persons detained	Period of detention	
		Usual	Average
		Days	*Days*
Boston (seamen ordered held on board)	4	10	12
New York (seamen ordered held on board)	103	4	8
Miami (witnesses)	3	38	50
Seattle (seamen ordered held on board)	2	16	16
Honolulu (seamen ordered held on board)	2	6	6
Total	114		

PART 3

Aliens detained in Service facilities at New York City and San Francisco on Oct. 1, 1952, who were in detention more than 6 months

New York (applicants for admission)	20
San Francisco (applicants for admission)	19
Total	39
New York (aliens under deportation proceedings)	11
San Francisco (aliens under deportation proceedings)	0
Total	11

Attached list gives initials, file number, and reason for detention.

Persons detained in Service facilities at New York and San Francisco on Oct. 1, 1952, who were in detention more than 6 months

APPLICANTS FOR ADMISSION

Name	File No.	Present status	Cause for continued detention
At New York:			
A. K.	0300-114802	Excluded by board of special inquiry, Apr. 29, 1952.	Awaiting transportation.
A. B.	0300-292581	Excluded by board of special inquiry, Mar. 20, 1951.	Deportation stayed pending outcome private bill.
T. B.	A 4284259	Excluded by board of special inquiry, Dec. 5, 1950.	Writ pending.
I. B.	0300-337489	Excluded by board of special inquiry, Feb. 5, 1952.	Awaiting travel document.
Z. F. B.	0300-337488	do	Do.
A. B.	0300-337489	do	Do.
L. D.	0300-395195	Excluded by board of special inquiry, June 27, 1952.	Do.
V. D.	0300-395173	do	Do.
J. E. H.	0300-298576	Excluded by board of special inquiry, May 14, 1952.	Stay; writ pending.
L. H.	0300-401116	Excluded by board of special inquiry, Dec. 19, 1951.	Do.
A. K.	0300-393565	Excluded by board of special inquiry, Mar. 5, 1952.	Writ pending.
E. S.	0300-340314	Excluded by board of special inquiry, Mar. 2, 1951.	Do.
A. S.	0300-412679	Excluded by board of special inquiry, July 24, 1952.	Awaiting travel document.
H. S.	0300-412678	do	Do.
M. S.	0300-412677	do	Do.
I. S.	0300-412739	Excluded by board of special inquiry, Sept. 15, 1952.	Do.
O. W.	0300-382326	Excluded by board of special inquiry, May 12, 1952.	Awaiting travel document; classified insane.
Y. Y. E.	0300-414557	Excluded by board of special inquiry	On appeal to Board of Immigration Appeals.
H. C. K.	A 6665545	Safekeeping	Writ.
J. A.	0300-413138	Excluded by board of special inquiry, May 16, 1952.	Awaiting travel document.
At San Francisco:			
I. N. W.	1300-117970	Partially heard by board of special inquiry; deferred for further investigation in Hong Kong following prosecution for conspiracy to import applicant by fraud.	
L. Y. L.	1300-110930		
L. S. K.	T-1197175	Forwarded on appeal to Board of Immigration Appeals, Sept. 25, 1952.	
L. S. Y.	T-1497176		
L. Y. B.	1300-123431	Board of special inquiry hearing deferred for investigation at Hong Kong into information indicating applicants' claims are fraudulent.	
L. Y. H.	1300-123432		
L. Y. S.	1300-123433		
L. Y. Q.	1300-123850		
L. K. S.	1300-150223		
L. D. H.	1300-150221		
O. C. F.	1300-123413	Excluding decision affirmed by Board of Immigration Appeals, Oct. 10, 1952.	
O. C. A.	1300-123411		
Y. F.	1300-92727	Appeal from excluding decision dismissed, Sept. 25, 1952.	Now awaiting deportation.
C. K. F.	1300-125308	Appeal from excluding decision sustained, Oct. 3, 1952; applicant admitted that date.	

UNDER DEPORTATION PROCEEDINGS

C. H. S.	1300-125106	Excluded by board of special inquiry Oct. 9, 1952, after extensive investigations completed in New York, Philadelphia, and Hong Kong for possible criminal prosecution for perjury and fraud.	
W. H. C.	1300-125098	Appeal dismissed Aug. 26, 1952	Now awaiting deportation.
W. H. S.	1300-125099		
L. W. Y.	1300-127009	Pending on appeal before Board of Immigration Appeals since June 25, 1952.	
F. T.	T-1497392	Pending on appeal before Board of Immigration Appeals since Aug. 26, 1952.	

Persons detained in Service facilities at New York and San Francisco on Oct. 1, 1952, who were in detention more than 6 months—Continued

UNDER DEPORTATION PROCEEDINGS

Name	File No.	Present status	Cause for continued detention
At New York:			
J. M	0300-397028	Seaman; remained longer. Warrant for Deportation issued Feb. 18, 1952.	Awaiting travel document; deportation imminent.
W. B	{A-7828996 {0300-308201	Act of Oct. 16, 1918 (Communist). Deportation ordered June 19, 1951.	Appeal to Board of Immigration Appeals pending.
A. E	0300-332680	Seaman; remained longer. Warrant for Deportation issued Apr. 8, 1952.	Issuance travel document imminent.
F. H	0300-51559	No visa. Deportation ordered May 1, 1952	Pending appeal Board of Immigration Appeals.
R. M	A-6650939	Crime after entry. Warrant for Deportation issued Apr. 29, 1952.	Issuance travel document immil nent.
G. N	0300-400746	Seaman; remained longer. Warrant for Deportation issued May 20, 1952.	Writ pending.
D. P	0300-408570	Seaman; remained longer. Warrant for Deportation issued Apr. 25, 1952.	Awaiting travel document.
J. S. R	A-2384993	No visa; entered by fraud. Warrant for Deportation issued Aug. 12, 1952.	Awaiting travel document.
L. S	0300-399875	No visa. Warrant for deportation issued Nov. 28, 1941.	Writ pending.
M. Y	99301-845	Act of Oct. 16, 1918 (Communist). Warrant for deportation issued Apr. 22, 1952.	Awaiting travel documents. Release detrimental to public security.
L. Z	0300-411235	No visa. Warrant for deportation issued Apr. 28, 1952.	Awaiting travel document.

NOTE.—No deportation proceedings at San Francisco.

PART 4

Aliens detained in deportation proceedings as of Oct. 1, 1952, where detention is continued without bond pending final determination of deportability

District	Total	Simple fact cases	Communist	Illegal entry or stowaway	Criminal
No. 1, St. Albans	2				2
No. 2, Boston	4	4			
No. 3, New York	121	90	2	16	13
No. 4, Philadelphia	0				
No. 5, Baltimore	0				
No. 6, Miami	1				1
No. 7, Buffalo	0				
No. 8, Detroit	2	1			1
No. 9, Chicago	4			4	
No. 11, Kansas City	0				
No. 12, Seattle	0				
No. 13, San Francisco	0				
No. 14, San Antonio	1				1
No. 15, El Paso	0				
No. 16, Los Angeles	4			1	3
No. 17, Honolulu	2			2	
Total	141	95	2	23	21

Total days of detention	6,288
Average days of detention	44.6

Total detained as of Oct. 1, 1952

	Number	Percent
Simple fact cases	95	67⅓
Communist	2	1⅓
Illegal entry or stowaways	23	16⅓
Criminal	21	15
Total	141	100

Aliens detained in deportation proceedings as of Oct. 1, 1952, where detention is continued without bond pending final determination of deportability

Name	Detained since—	Charges	Reason for detention
District No. 1, St. Albans, Vt.:			
C. D	Sept. 26, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
P. R. W	Sept. 17, 1952	No visa; crime prior to entry.	Criminal.
District No. 2, Boston, Mass.:			
L. A	Sept. 4, 1952	No visa	(1).
H. C	do	do	Wanted by British authorities.[1]
J. S	Sept. 25, 1952	Remained longer; visitor.	Violation of parole.
E. B	Sept. 26, 1952	do	(1).
District No. 3, New York, N. Y.:			
A	Oct. 1, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
A. A. K	June 14, 1952	Remained longer; visitor.	(1).
P. B	Sept. 13, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
R. B	Sept. 18, 1952	No visa; stowaway	(1).
W. B	Oct. 19, 1951	Failure to maintain status.	Communist.
A. C	July 11, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
C. A. C	Sept. 17, 1952	No visa	(1).
S. M. C	Sept. 23, 1952	No visa; remained longer; visitor.	(1).
M. J. C	Aug. 21, 1952	Stowaway; without inspection.	Stowaway.
E. C	Oct. 1, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
J. R	Aug. 21, 1952	Stowaway; without inspection.	Stowaway.
M. C	Sept. 22, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
R. C	May 22, 1952	Remained longer; visitor.	(1).
D. D	Sept. 15, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
M. V. D. A	Sept. 9, 1952	Stowaway; without inspection.	Stowaway.
M. C. D. N	Sept. 25, 1952	No visa	(1).
A. D	Sept. 2, 1952	do	(1).
G. D	Sept. 10, 1952	Remained longer; visitor.	(1).
A. L. E	Aug. 5, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	Adulterous; detrimental to public welfare.
E. A. E	Aug. 27, 1952	No visa; false statements.	Prosecution.
C. N. F	May 19, 1952	No visa	(1).
F. F	Sept. 29, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	Criminal.
D. E. F	Sept. 8, 1952	do	(1).
H. H. G	Sept. 24, 1952	do	(1).
M. R. G	Aug. 7, 1952	No visa; stowaway without inspection.	Stowaway.
K. H	Aug. 27, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
A. H	May 9, 1952	do	(1).
R. J	June 3, 1952	Remained longer; visitor.	(1).
C. K	Sept. 8, 1952	Narcotic	Detrimental to public welfare.

See footnote at end of table.

Aliens detained in deportation proceedings as of Oct. 1, 1952, where detention is continued without bond pending final determination of deportability—Con.

Name	Detained since—	Charges	Reason for detention
District No. 3, New York, N. Y.—Con.			
C. K.	Sept. 11, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
J. K.	June 6, 1952	do	Previous absconder; likely to abscond.
F. K.	July 14, 1952	Crime after entry	Criminal; detrimental to public safety.
C. K.	Sept. 12, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
R. K.	Aug. 27, 1952	No visa	Likely to abscond; separated from wife; possibly dangerous to wife.
A. L.	do	Crime prior to entry; previous deport; remained longer; seaman.	Criminal.
B. L. L.	Sept. 24, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
F. L.	Aug. 2, 1952	do	(1).
L. P. M.	Sept. 25, 1952	do	(1).
S. M.	Sept. 22, 1952	do	(1).
K. L. M.	Sept. 13, 1952	do	(1).
A. M.	Sept. 30, 1952	do	(1).
M. M. M.	Sept. 2, 1952	do	(1).
R. N.	Aug. 20, 1952	No visa; without inspection.	(1).
A. N.	June 18, 1952	Stowaway	(1).
R. O.	Sept. 11, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
H. O. N.	Aug. 21, 1952	do	(1).
A. A. P.	Sept. 24, 1952	No visa	Stowaway; entered without inspection.
C. P.	Sept. 19, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
G. P.	Sept. 18, 1952	do	(1).
A. M. P.	Oct. 1, 1952	Remained longer; visitor.	(1).
A. P.	Aug. 29, 1952	Remained longer ;seaman.	(1).
L. P.	Aug. 25, 1952	do	(1).
J. A. R.	Sept. 8, 1952	No visa	(1).
I. R.	Aug. 19, 1952	Remained longer; student.	(1).
A. S.	Sept. 26, 1952	No visa; without inspection.	Illegal entry.
M. A. S.	Sept. 12, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
C. S.	Sept. 2, 1952	do	(1).
A. S.	July 31, 1952	No visa	(1).
C. H. S.	Aug. 15, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
A. S.	Oct. 1, 1952	Remained longer; visitor.	(1).
A. S.	Sept. 12, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
A. S.	Aug. 30, 1952	More than one crime after entry.	Criminal.
L. O. S.	Sept. 15, 1952	No visa	(1).
A. S. L.	Aug. 4, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
B. S. S.	Oct. 1, 1952	No visa	(1).
R. S.	Aug. 7, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
N. J. T.	Sept. 8, 1952	do	(1).
A. T.	Aug. 4, 1952	No visa	(1).
K. A. B. T.	Oct. 1, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
G. T.	Sept. 30, 1952	No visa	(1).
A. B. U.	Aug. 29, 1952	do	(1).
I. E. V.	Oct. 1, 1952	do	(1).
R. T. V.	Sept. 25, 1952	do	(1).
V. Z.	May 1, 1952	do	(1).
E. Z.	June 13, 1952	do	(1).
J. A. G.	July 5, 1952	do	(1).
L. N. H.	June 11, 1952	Remained longer; visitor.	(1).

See footnote at end of table.

Aliens detained in deportation proceedings as of Oct. 1, 1952, where detention is continued without bond pending final determination of deportability—Con.

Name	Detained since—	Charges	Reason for detention
District No. 3, New York, N. Y.—Con.			
S. B	Oct. 1, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
A. H	Oct. 1, 1952	do	(1).
J. R	Oct. 1, 1952	do	(1).
M. S	Oct. 1, 1952	do	(1).
A. J	July 28, 1952	do	(1).
H. M	Sept. 12, 1952	No visa	Entered without inspection; likely to abscond.
A. Y. L	June 17, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1)
A. H. A	May 9, 1952	Failure to maintain status as visitor.	(1)
M. A. A	Sept. 30, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1)
J. A	May 7, 1952	No visa	(1).
L. V. B	Sept. 9, 1952	do	Adulterous; detrimental to public welfare.
N. B	July 17, 1952	No visa; without inspection.	(1).
A. B	May 14, 1952	No visa	(1).
G. B	Sept. 18, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
E. A. E	Aug. 27, 1952	No visa; false statements.	(1).
M. F	Sept. 2, 1952	No visa	(1).
A. G	July 30, 1952	do	Criminal.
F. H	Feb. 12, 1952	do	(1).
J. H	May 15, 1952	do	(1).
F. H	Apr. 12, 1952	No visa; no passport; without inspection.	Criminal.
D. K. I	Aug. 5, 1952	No visa; false statements.	(1).
S. J	Aug. 14, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
E. P	Oct. 1, 1952	Remained longer; visitor.	(1).
M. P	Sept. 23, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
H. A. S	Sept. 18, 1952	do	(1).
A. F. B	Aug. 25, 1952	Remained longer; visitor.	(1).
J. A. C	July 16, 1952	No visa	Criminal.
O. C	June 13, 1952	Entered without inspection.	Criminal record. Previously deported.
P. C	Sept. 18, 1952	No visa	Criminal.
C. V. B	May 20, 1952	do	Bigamist; detrimental to public welfare.
M. S	June 2, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	(1).
F. M	Oct. 1, 1952	do	(1).
P. N	Aug. 29, 1952	No visa	(1).
V. K. T	Mar. 18, 1952	do	Subversive; detrimental to public security.
L. W	Sept. 28, 1952	Crime after entry	Criminal.
M. C. D	Aug. 19, 1952	Act of Oct. 16, 1918	Communist.
A. L	Aug. 27, 1952	No visa; without inspection.	Criminal.
B. L	Sept. 23, 1952	No visa	(1).
A. B. U	Aug. 29, 1952	do	(1).
I. E. V	Oct. 1, 1952	do	(1).
J. M. W	Sept. 17, 1952	do	(1).
S. A	Sept. 11, 1952	do	(1).
P. B	Sept. 13, 1952	Remained longer; seaman.	Criminal.
D. D. A	Apr. 11, 1952	No visa	(1).
District No. 6, Miami, Fla.: O. G. V	July 18, 1952	No visa; without inspection.	Criminal; wanted in Cuba for murder.
District No. 8, Detroit, Mich.:			
T. A	Mar. 5, 1952	Crime after entry	Criminal; detrimental to public welfare.
H. C. S	Aug. 16, 1952	No visa	(1).
District No. 9, Chicago, Ill.:			
E. F. MeA	Sept. 16, 1952	No visa; without inspection.	(1).
A. E. P	do	do	(1).
R. J. F	do	do	(1).
K. K	Sept. 4, 1952	do	(1).

See footnote at end of table.

Aliens detained in deportation proceedings as of Oct. 1, 1952, where detention is continued without bond pending final determination of deportability—Con.

Name	Detained since—	Charges	Reason for detention
District No. 14, San Antonio, Tex.: P. S.	Aug. 31, 1952	No visa	Criminal; wanted in Italy.
District No. 16, Los Angeles, Calif.:			
A. S.	May 1, 1952	Practicing prostitution after entry.	Prostitute.
R. K.	Aug. 14, 1952	No visa; without inspection.	(1).
E. P. A.	Aug. 14, 1952	Crime prior to entry	Criminal.
R. G.	Sept. 15, 1952	do	Do.
District No. 17, Honolulu, T. H.:			
D. C.	Aug. 18, 1952	No visa	(1).
F. E.	June 26, 1952	do	(1).

[1] These are simple fact cases, arrived recently, are heard very promptly, concede deportability, and there are no other factors to be adjudicated. No question of eligibility for administrative relief, and may be deported promptly upon the entry of an order of deportation.

PART 5

Final orders of deportation outstanding in excess of 6 months, Oct. 1, 1952

Reason for delay in execution	Grounds for deportation				
	Subversive	Criminal, narcotic, and immoral	Illegal entrant	Other	Total
District:					
1. St. Albans		63	4	11	78
Unable obtain travel documents		30	1	5	36
Private bill pending					
Administrative stay					
Serving sentence or in institution		33	2	6	41
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements			1		1
2. Boston	8	159	71	102	343
Unable obtain travel documents	7	110	33	60	210
Private bill pending		2	9	12	23
Administrative stay		7	11	14	32
Serving sentence or in institution		20	8	4	32
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements	1	20	13	12	46
3. New York	19	214	41	1,024	1,298
Unable obtain travel documents	1	13	5	87	106
Private bill pending		4	7	101	112
Administrative stay	1	2	1	99	103
Serving sentence or in institution		5	3	34	42
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements	17	190	25	703	935
4. Philadelphia	9	106	8	100	223
Unable obtain travel documents	1	46	1	21	69
Private bill pending	1	1	1	10	13
Administrative stay		3	1	6	10
Serving sentence or in institution		14		13	27
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements	7	42	5	50	104
5. Baltimore	3	18	29	45	95
Unable obtain travel documents	2	12	6	8	28
Private bill pending			4	13	17
Administrative stay		5	8	14	27
Serving sentence or in institution	1	1	1	5	8
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements			10	5	15

Final orders of deportation outstanding in excess of 6 months, Oct. 1, 1952—Con.

Reason for delay in execution	Grounds for deportation: Subversive	Criminal, narcotic, and immoral	Illegal entrant	Other	Total
District—Continued					
6. Miami	2	72	16	49	139
Unable obtain travel documents	2	17	4	8	31
Private bill pending		1	2	3	6
Administrative stay			2		2
Serving sentence or in institution		18	5	11	67
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements		6	3	24	33
7. Buffalo	6	158		71	235
Unable obtain travel documents	4	73		22	99
Private bill pending	1			5	6
Administrative stay	1	5		2	8
Serving sentence or in institution		51			51
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements		29		42	71
8. Detroit	16	343	14	132	505
Unable obtain travel documents	5	150	1	77	233
Private bill pending				13	13
Administrative stay		3			3
Serving sentence or in institution	1	95		41	137
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements	10	95	13	1	119
9. Chicago	18	236	43	96	393
Unable obtain travel documents	17	150	21	48	236
Private bill pending		2	3	3	8
Administrative stay	1	10	8	3	22
Serving sentence or in institution		7	6	6	19
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements		67	5	36	108
11. Kansas City	3	128	24	22	177
Unable obtain travel documents	2	44	7	8	61
Private bill pending			1	2	3
Administrative stay		1		3	4
Serving sentence or in institution		28	4	9	41
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements	1	55	12		68
12. Seattle	10	128	23	83	244
Unable obtain travel documents	5	81	5	49	140
Private bill pending		3		15	18
Administrative stay		2		11	13
Serving sentence or in institution		27	7	6	40
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements	5	15	11	2	33
13. San Francisco	20	328	85	172	605
Unable obtain travel documents	18	105	29	64	216
Private bill pending		1		7	8
Administrative stay		3	20	37	60
Serving sentence or in institution	1	203	5	32	241
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements	1	16	31	32	80
14. San Antonio	2	89	51	55	197
Unable obtain travel documents	2	9	2	11	24
Private bill pending					
Administrative stay				1	1
Serving sentence or in institution				2	2
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements		80	49	41	170

Final orders of deportation outstanding in excess of 6 months, Oct. 1, 1952—Con.

Reason for delay in execution	Grounds for deportation				
	Subversive	Criminal, narcotic, and immoral	Illegal entrant	Other	Total
District—Continued					
15. El Paso		40	93	20	153
Unable obtain travel documents		5	17	8	30
Private bill pending					
Administrative stay		1			1
Serving sentence or in institution		25	56		81
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements		9	20	12	41
16. Los Angeles	9	39	183	38	269
Unable obtain travel documents	9	30	76	7	122
Private bill pending		1	40		41
Administrative stay		1	25	18	44
Serving sentence or in institution		5	2	1	8
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements		2	40	12	54
17. Honolulu	2	3			5
Unable obtain travel documents					
Private bill pending					
Administrative stay					
Serving sentence or in institution					
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements	2	3			5
Grand total	127	2,124	688	2,020	4,959
Unable obtain travel documents	75	875	208	483	1,641
Private bill pending	2	15	67	184	268
Administrative stay	3	43	76	208	330
Serving sentence or in institution	3	562	99	173	837
Pending documents and/or transportation arrangements	44	629	238	972	1,883

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE, IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION SERVICE, CONCERNING EXCLUSION OF ALIENS WITHOUT A HEARING ON THE BASIS OF CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE,
IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION SERVICE,
OFFICE OF THE COMMISSIONER,
Washington, D. C., October 23, 1952.

Mr. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington, D. C.

DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: This is in response to your letter of October 3, 1952, requesting information from this Service concerning the practice of excluding aliens without a hearing on the basis of confidential information. Each question propounded by you will be set out by number for clarity, followed by the Service answer. It is desired to point out that the statistical and proportional figures requested by you are, in most instances, approximate since they do not fall within the normal pattern of statistics maintained by this Service.

1. When was the practice of ordering exclusion without a hearing inaugurated? Describe the instructions or regulations which initiated this practice.

Your attention is invited to the act of May 22, 1918, as amended by the act of June 21, 1941 (40 Stat. 559; 55 Stat. 252; 22 U. S. C. 223-226), conferring upon the President the power to impose additional restrictions on aliens desiring to enter the United States when the United States was at war or during the existence

of a national emergency. Pursuant to such authority, on November 14, 1941, Presidential Proclamation No. 2523 (6 F. R. 5821) authorized the promulgation of the necessary regulations by the Secretary of State and the Attorney General jointly. These regulations authorized the Attorney General, after consultation with the Secretary of State, where he determined that an alien came within one of the categories set forth in the regulation, to order exclusion of the alien without a hearing before a board of special inquiry on the basis of confidential information, the disclosure of which would be prejudicial to the public interest.[1] The Attorney General still retains that authority; the regulation is found in 8 Code of Federal Regulations 175.57 (10 F. R. 8995, July 24, 1945). President Truman, on August 17, 1949, by proclamation No. 2850 (14 F. R. 5173, August 19, 1949) eliminated the necessity for the Attorney General to consult with the Secretary of State before excluding an alien. The constitutionality of thus excluding an alien without hearing was upheld by the United States Supreme Court in *United States ex rel. Knauff* v. *Shaughnessy* (338 U. S. 537, January 16, 1950), when the Court found no legal defect in the manner of Mrs. Knauff's exclusion.

The change effected by proclamation No. 2850 was incorporated in section 5 of the act of October 16, 1918, as amended by the Internal Security Act of 1950. As the result, the need for consultation with the Secretary of State no longer exists. Pursuant to such legislative enactment, regulations were issued to implement the act (8 C. F. R. 174.4; 15 F. R. 8110, November 28, 1950).

2. In how many cases was this procedure utilized prior to 1946? How many aliens (other than seamen) were excluded from the United States without a hearing prior to 1946?

For the reasons stated in the opening paragraph of this letter, the Service is unable to furnish any statistical breakdown of the number of cases falling within this procedure prior to 1946. The number, in any event, would be negligible because of the restricted travel during the war years and other procedures which were utilized during the war emergency to prevent the entry into the United States of those applicants whose entry might be deemed to be prejudicial to the United States, such as the use of the Inter-Departmental Committee procedure and the so-called panel system. I shall not attempt to describe these procedures in detail since I am sure that you or your staff are familiar with them. Generally, they were screening groups including members of various Government agencies.

3. In how many cases during the fiscal years 1948 through 1952 have aliens been temporarily excluded without a hearing under the provisions of 8 Code of Federal Regulations 175.57 or section 5 of the act of October 16, 1918, as amended?

It has been possible to determine that from December 1948 to July 1, 1952, approximately 2,000 aliens, other than seamen, were temporarily excluded under the provisions of 8 Code of Federal Regulations 175.57 or section 5 of the 1918 act, as amended.

4. In how many of such cases has exclusion been finally ordered without a hearing? Indicate what proportion of these have been at seaports and what proportion at land ports of entry.

Of the above number of persons temporarily excluded, approximately 500 were ordered excluded and deported without a hearing. Ninety-two percent of these occurred at land ports of entry while 8 percent occurred at seaports of entry.

5. How many of those finally excluded without a hearing have been: (*a*) seamen; (*b*) aliens returning to residences in the United States, including a specification of any in possession of reentry permits who were so excluded; (*c*) sponses of American citizens; and (*d*) residents of Canada or Mexico?

Again, in the light of my opening statement concerning statistics, I regret to inform you that I do not have a statistical breakdown of the number of seamen and sponses of American citizens who were finally excluded without a hearing. I can state, however, that of the approximate 500 finally excluded, 463 were residents of Canada or Mexico. Further, 12 persons finally excluded alleged that

[1] 8 C. F. R. 175.50 (b) (6 F. R. 5916, effective December 1, 1941).

they were returning residents of which 5 were in possession of resident alien border-crossing cards, 1 was in possession of a reentry permit, 1 was in possession of a visa issued pursuant to section 4 (b) of the Immigration Act of 1924, and 5 were returning resident seamen who were not required to have visas under the waiver provided by the regulations.

6. In what proportion of cases involving denials of hearing on the basis of confidential security information have such denials been based on information supplied by: (*a*) official intelligence agencies of the United States; (*b*) official intelligence agencies of foreign governments; (*c*) private individuals?

It is necessary to again refer to my opening statement concerning statistics. The information called for by this question does not fall within the normal pattern of statistics maintained by this service, and, therefore, it is not possible to furnish the information sought. Experience has shown, however, that the percentage based on information from private individuals is quite small.

7. What steps do you take to verify or evaluate the information supplied by foreign agencies or by private individuals before an order of exclusion on the basis of such information is entered? What steps do you take to verify or evaluate such information when supplied by official intelligence agencies of the United States?

Information supplied by foreign agencies, private individuals, or official intelligence agencies of the United States which is used as the basis for orders of exclusion is evaluated in the light of all of the facts in the case and any other information which the Service may have in a particular case as a result of investigations conducted by it.

Specifically, before information supplied by a private individual is relied upon, it must be established that the informant is of known reliability. This is accomplished by obtaining corroborating information from other sources and, as the occasion arises, obtaining reports from the field offices of this Service or some other agency of the United States as to the competency and reliability of the informant and as to other facts or circumstances that might support or discredit the information furnished. I think it is well to emphasize that information emanating from private sources is closely scrutinized and given its proper weight and consideration in relation to other information of record in the case.

Likewise, information furnished by foreign agencies must be of proven reliability before it will be accepted. In many cases, other agencies of this Government are requested to furnish opinions as to the reliability of the information furnished by the foreign agency.

Information furnished by official intelligence agencies of the United States is generally evaluated by the agency at the time the information is submitted and generally the agency evaluation is accepted. On occasion, further investigation is requested of the agency submitting the report so that information contained in the report may be clarified and properly evaluated. In some cases, attempts are made to have the informants mentioned in the report interviewed by a representative of this Service, where possible, but only after clearance by the agency furnishing the report. Information supplied by one source is frequently corroborated by another.

8. What proportion of exclusions without hearing have been ordered on the basis of evidence showing (*a*) direct participation in espionage, sabotage, or other activities immediately related to the internal security, military operations, or external affairs of the United States; (*b*) membership in the Communist Party of the United States; (*c*) membership in the Communist Party of any foreign country; (*d*) membership in any other organization in the United States; (*e*) membership in any other organization in any foreign country; (*f*) other factors?

The approximate proportion of exclusions without hearing ordered on the basis of particular evidence adduced is as follows:

	Percent
Membership in the Communist Party of the United States	1
Membership in the Communist Party of any foreign country	37
Membership in any other organization in any foreign country	48
Other factors	14

Again, in the light of my opening statement concerning statistics, I regret that I do not have the statistical breakdown to show the proportion of exclusions without hearing which have been ordered on the basis of evidence showing direct

participation in espionage, sabotage, or other activities immediately related to the internal security, military operations, or external affairs of the United States, and membership in any other organizations in the United States. Any such cases, therefore, are included in the 14 percent representing other factors.

It is desired to emphasize that the use of this process has not been automatic but is resorted to only in those cases where the establishment of membership was based upon reliable and trustworthy information from sources which could not be disclosed without jeopardizing the effectiveness of intelligence agencies and sources so important to remain concealed in the interest of national security.

9. Has exclusion without hearing finally been ordered on the basis of past membership in any of the organizations described in paragraph 8? If so, specify what proportion of cases involve such past membership.

Since past membership in a proscribed organization automatically brings a person within the inhibitions of section 5 of the act of October 16, 1918, as amended, we do know from experience that final exclusion orders have been entered on the basis of past membership in the organizations mentioned in paragraph 8 above. However, the exact proportion cannot be specified since, as indicated above, the information does not fall within the normal pattern of statistics maintained by this Service.

The comment made under paragraph 8 above with respect to the limited use of this process applies equally to cases involving past membership.

10. What standards do you use in determining that exclusion without hearing is warranted? Do you feel that exclusion without hearing is justified on the basis of strong suspicion of improper associations or activities or is it your view that the confidential information upon which you rely should be equally as persuasive as similar evidence produced at a hearing? Do you rely on confidential information of past or present associations because direct evidence is unavailable? To what extent do you attempt to determine whether the alleged membership was voluntary? How do you determine in such cases whether a named organization other than the Communist Party is proscribed under the act of October 16, 1918, as amended?

The standards used in determining that exclusion without a hearing is justified are found in the regulations and the statute.[2] They are:

1. That it be determined that an applicant is excludable under one of the categories set forth in 8 CFR 175.53 or section 1 of the act of October 16, 1918, as amended;

2. That the derogatory information justifying exclusion is of a confidential nature; and

3. That the disclosure of that information would be prejudicial to the public interest, safety, or security. (The words "safety or security" appear only in section 5 of the 1918 act, as amended.)

Mere suspicion of improper associations or activities, although strong, is not used as the basis for exclusion without a hearing. The information relied upon must be such that, except for its confidential nature, it would support a ground for the exclusion of the alien if produced at a hearing before a Board of Special Inquiry.

Confidential information is relied upon only when admissible evidence is not available. If there is information, the disclosure of which would not be prejudicial to the public interest, safety, or security, the alien's admissibility to the United States is determined at a hearing before a Board of Special Inquiry.

All of the circumstances which can be ascertained surrounding an alien's membership in a proscribed organization are considered, together with conditions, both political and economic, which prevailed at the time and in the country where the alien joined the organization. If such membership is admitted by the individual concerned, any explanation he desires to offer to show that such membership in an organization was involuntary is considered. In addition, the Service recognizes that membership in proscribed organizations was involuntary in some cases, as, for instance, the rank and file membership of the Fascist Party. Furthermore, it is the position of the Service that Public Law 14, Eighty-second Congress, approved March 28, 1951, which supplemented the act of October 16, 1918, as amended, was intended to exculpate any supposed membership in a prohibited organization which was not entered into voluntarily.

In view of the definitive provisions of section 3 (15) and section 3 (19) of the Internal Security Act of 1950, the Nazi Party of Germany and the Fascist

[2] 8 C. F. R. 175.57; sec. 5, act of October 16, 1918, as amended, as 8 C. F. R. 174.4 (b).

Party of Italy, in addition to the Communist Party, have been held to be proscribed. As to other totalitarian parties or governments, resort, of course, is had to the legislative pattern and, in addition, other agencies of the Government are asked to furnish any information they may possess as to the character of the party or organization in a foreign country.

With respect to any other organization, a determination that it is proscribed under the 1918 act, as amended, is made only after full and complete investigation. The investigation, of course, includes checks with the various intelligence and other agencies of the United States. All the evidence and information obtained during the investigation is carefully considered and evaluated by the Service and a determination reached as to whether the organization in question falls within the proscription of the 1918 act, as amended:

11. What notice is given to the affected alien concerning the nature and basis of the charges against him? What opportunity does he have to refute such charges by presenting evidence in his own behalf? What opportunity is given for representation by counsel and for presenting written or oral arguments to the official charged with the responsibility for decisions? What notice is given to the affected alien concerning the decision against him and the basis on which it has been rendered?

When an alien has been temporarily excluded from admission to the United States, a brief sworn question and answer statement covering the relevant facts is taken from him, if possible. Also, he is served personally or by registered mail with a written notice that he was temporarily excluded because he appears to be excludable under the act of October 16, 1918, as amended, and that his application for admission is being forwarded for consideration to the Commissioner of this Service in Washington, D. C.

The alien is at liberty to present, in his behalf, whatever documents or other evidence he desires. Such documents or other evidence is forwarded to the Commissioner for use in consideration of the case.

The alien, following his temporary exclusion, is at liberty to engage counsel who may appear at any subsequent interrogation and submit whatever evidence and present whatever written arguments he desires. Requests for oral arguments have been few and oral argument have been made in the past on but a few occasions.

If the alien is ordered excluded and deported without a hearing, he is served, personally or by registered mail, with written notice to that effect. Since such an order must be based on confidential information, the disclosure of which would be prejudicial to the public interest, safety, or security, the alien cannot, of course, be apprised of the facts upon which the excluding order was based.

12. Under present procedures what officers of the Department of Justice are empowered to order final exclusion without hearing? If more than one officer has authority, specify the proportion of cases in which each officer has functioned. What opportunities are afforded for review of such determinations ordering final exclusion without hearing?

The Commission of Immigration and Naturalization is empowered to order an alien excluded and deported without a hearing. This authority, of course, is coextensive with that of the Attorney General.

Between January 1 and July 1, 1952, approximately 85 orders directing aliens excluded and deported without a hearing were entered by the Commissioner of Immigration and Naturalization. Prior to that time the Attorney General entered all such orders. Again, the figure must be approximate since I do not have a statistical breakdown of the orders in question.

There is no specific provision for review of orders directing aliens to be excluded and deported without hearing. However, in the event the alien or his counsel presents evidence that would seem to indicate an injustice has been done, the Service, on its own motion, has reopened cases for further hearing. Also, the alien may reapply for admission to the United States and thus have his admissibility to the United States again determined. At that time, of course, any additional information either for or against the alien would be considered and the entire record reviewed.

Sincerely,

BENJAMIN G. HABBERTON,
Acting Commissioner.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE, IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION SERVICE, CONCERNING PRIVATE IMMIGRATION AND NATIONALITY BILLS INTRODUCED IN THE EIGHTY-FIRST AND EIGHTY SECOND CONGRESSES

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE,
IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION SERVICE,
Washington 25, D. C., October 16, 1952.

HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director,
President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization,
Executive Office, Washington 25, D. C.

DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: Reference is made to your letter of September 17, 1952, requesting information concerning private immigration and nationality bills introduced in the Eighty-first and Eighty-second Congresses.

Pursuant to your request, I am submitting an analysis which sets forth (1) the number of private immigration and nationality bills introduced in each Congress, (2) the various categories into which they have been divided for the purpose of this report, (3) the number of persons affected by such bills, (4) the number of bills enacted by each Congress, (5) the various categories into which they fall, (6) the number of persons affected by the bills so enacted, and (7) the number of bills which have been vetoed by the President.

In any case where a bill has been introduced both in the Senate and the House of Representatives for the relief of the same person, only one bill has been included in our computation. According to the records of the Service, 2,465 private bills were introduced in the Eighty-first Congress for the relief of 4,145 persons. Of these bills, 505 were enacted for the benefit of 835 persons. Five bills were vetoed, three of which were subsequently reintroduced and enacted. In the Eighty-second Congress 3,302 bills were introduced for the relief of 5,784 persons of which 732 bills were enacted affecting 1,364 persons. Two bills which were vetoed were reintroduced and enacted.

	81st Cong.		82d Cong.	
	Introduced	Enacted	Introduced	Enacted
IMMIGRATION BILLS				
1. Granting right of permanent residence in United States, to aliens who have entered without immigration visas	1,596	183	2,107	294
2. Granting nonquota status to adopted children and stepchildren of United States citizens (secs. 4 (a) and 9 of 1924 act)	100	44	243	110
3. Granting nonquota status together with exemption from racial bar to adopted children and stepchildren of United States citizens (secs. 4 (a), 9, and 13 (c) of 1924 act)	38	11	192	110
4. Deeming alien to be under age of 21 years so as to confer nonquota status	6	3	4	2
5. Deeming alien to be returning from temporary visit abroad so as to confer nonquota status	8	5	23	8
6. Deeming alien to be nonquota immigrant or born in country which has open quota	24	9	34	8
7. Authorizing alien fiancée of veteran to enter as visitor and to adjust status	19	11	47	14
8. Authorizing alien fiancée of veteran to enter as visitor and to adjust status, together with exemption from racial bar	115	53	93	18
9. Granting nonquota status to Chinese persons notwithstanding sec 2 of act of December 17, 1943	24	13	40	21
10. Granting exemption from sec 13 (c) of the Immigration Act of 1924 to permit entry of aliens racially ineligible to citizenship	221	99	134	50
11. Granting exemption from those provisions of sec 3, Immigration Act of 1917, which exclude aliens afflicted with disease or mental defects	17	4	33	14
12. Granting exemption from those provisions of sec 3, Immigration Act of 1917, which exclude illiterate aliens	1	2	6	1
13. Granting exemption from those provisions of sec 3, Immigration Act of 1917, which exclude aliens on criminal grounds	62	29	119	43
14. Canceling deportation proceedings	47	6	13	
15. Other immigration bills	53	12	74	4
NATIONALITY BILLS				
1. Waiving residence period required for naturalization	37	5	25	3
2. Authorizing expeditious naturalization of former citizens	54	11	62	11
3. Preserving citizenship notwithstanding protracted foreign residence or voting in foreign countries	18		23	16
4. Other nationality bills	22	5	30	5
Total	2,465	505	3,302	732

The Service cannot undertake to advise your Comission as to the policies followed by Congress in dealing with private relief legislation. So far as I am aware, no congressional committee has ever issued a statement setting forth the criteria by which it would be governed in passing upon private immigration and nationality bills. However, the House Subcommittee on Immigration and Naturalization has indicated to this Service that it does not look with favor upon private bills for the relief of deserting seamen or stowaways.

In its recommendations to the Department, the Service has taken the position that the enactment of private bills should be limited to cases involving unsual and compelling circumstances such as extreme hardship and services rendered or to be rendered to the United States. The Service consistently has opposed the enactment of private bills which tend to encourage a disregard for the general laws at the expense of aliens who comply with these laws.

As a rule, bills in the first immigration category provide for the deduction of one number from the applicable quota as to each alien beneficiary. Under the existing practice, the aliens who violate our immigration laws are frequently rewarded and those who respect our laws by remaining abroad until their numbers are reached must experience further delay because so many quota numbers are allocated to aliens unlawfully residing in the United States.

From time to time requests have been made by the Senate and House Committees on the Judiciary that the Service defer deportation pending consideration of private relief legislation. In that connection, there is attached for your information a copy of a letter which was written on August 21, 1952, by the Attorney General to the chairman of the House Subcommittee on Immigration and Naturalization. That letter sets forth the policy by which the Service is guided in the matter of staying deportation pending consideration of private bills.

In paragraphs 5 and 6 of your letter you request a statement as to the probable effect of Public Law 414, Eighty-second Congress, upon the number of private bills which may be expected in the future. That act eliminates the racial bar altogether and thereby obviates the necessity for the introduction of private bills referred to in immigration category No. 10 of the above analysis. The Immigration and Nationality Act grants nonquota status to the alien Chinese children and husbands of American citizens. (See secs. 202 (a) (5) and 101 (a) (27) (A).) For that reason, there will be no need for private bills under immigration category No. 9.

Section 101 (a) (27) (A) of the Immigration and Nationality Act confers nonquota status upon an immigrant who is the "spouse" of an American citizen. Under existing law (sec. 4 (a) of the Immigration Act of 1924), alien husbands of American citizens do not have nonquota status by reason of the relationship unless the marriage occurred prior to January 1, 1948. This change in the law may reduce the number of bills described in immigration category No. 6.

Section 101 (b) (1) of the Immigration and Nationality Act defines the term "child" so as to include "a stepchild, provided the child had not reached the age of 18 years at the time the marriage creating the status of stepchild occurred." Thus, a stepchild will enjoy nonquota status under section 101 (a) (27) if the stepfather or stepmother is a citizen of the United States. This extension of the class of "child" will undoubtedly operate to reduce the number of private bills referred to in immigration category No. 2.

Immigration category No. 1 will probably be affected by section 245 of the Immigration and Nationality Act, which authorizes the adjustment of status to permanent residence in certain cases, and by section 203 (a) (1), which grants quota preferences to persons of high education or specialized experience.

In paragraph 6 of your letter you request a statement as to the types of cases in which the Service anticipates an increase in the volume of private bills resulting from the provisions of the Immigration and Nationality Act. Some avenues which heretofore provided administrative relief to aliens seeking the adjustment of their immigration status will be closed as you have indicated. There is, however, no way to ascertan what proportion of the persons affected will seek relief through private legislation. While this expedient has been resorted to with increasing frequency during the last decade, it is not possible to determine what effect Public Law 414 will have upon the attitude of the Eighty-third Congress. Consequently, any statement by the Service as to the probability of an increase in the number of private bills, or the extent of any possible increase, would be entirely conjectural.

Sincerely,

BENJ. G. HABBERTON,
Acting Commissioner.

(The following letter from Attorney General McGranery was enclosed:)

AUGUST 21, 1952.

HON. FRANCIS E. WALTER,
Chairman, Subcommittee on Immigration and Naturalization,
Committee on the Judiciary, House of Representatives,
Washington, D. C.

MY DEAR MR. CONGRESSMAN: This is in response to your letter of July 8, 1952, requesting that deportation be held in abeyance until March 1, 1953, in the cases of aliens for whom private bills were pending in Congress at the time of its adjournment.

During the Eighty-second Congress, 3,669 private relief bills dealing with immigration and nationality problems were introduced, which compares with a total of 2,811 for the Eighty-first Congress, 1,141 for the Eightieth Congress, 429 for the Seventy-ninth Congress, and 163 for the Seventy-eighth Congress.

This vast increase in the introduction of private relief bills in recent years, reaching its peak in the Eighty-second Congress, has naturally resulted in a comparable increase in the calls upon the Immigration and Naturalization Service for investigations and reports, a situation which, without a commensurate increase in personnel, has placed a considerable burden on facilities already heavily burdened with many other pressing assignments. However, as you know, this department is always desirous of furnishing every possible assistance to the Congress and continuing the splendid mutual cooperation which has always existed between your committee and the department.

I know that the flood of private bills has also added to the burdens of your committee, and that many such bills were under active consideration by your committee and by the Congress at the time of its adjournment. While I am reluctant to continue indefinitely the deferment of deportation in the cases of aliens whose expulsion is commanded by statute, at the same time I wish to afford to the Congress the opportunity to consider ameliorative action in those matters where the appropriate congressional committees have stated that such action is under active consideration.

In the past this Department has generally withheld the deportation of those aliens in whose behalf private bills were pending, when such postponement has been requested by the Senate and House Judiciary Committees. Such deferments represent an administrative courtesy which the Attorney General is glad to extend to Congress. As you know, however, the law reposes in this office the duty to deport aliens who are illegally in the United States, and this Department must reserve the right to determine whether a stay of deportation in any individual case is consistent, in its judgment, with good administration and with the welfare and safety of the United States, a policy with which I am sure that you are in full accord. Such determination, however, will be made only after consultation with the interested committees of the Congress.

In conformity with this policy and in compliance with your request, this department will continue to extend to Congress the full measure of courtesy and comity that has guided our actions in the past. With the above reservation, deportation will be stayed until March 1, 1953, in those cases in which a private relief bill was pending in Congress at the time of its adjournment, in which the appropriate committee in either House of Congress has not taken adverse action, and in which your committee has specifically asked that deportation be stayed or has requested a report.

Sincerely,

JAMES P. MCGRANERY,
Attorney General.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR CONCERNING CERTIFICATIONS AS TO UNAVAILABILITY OF DOMESTIC LABOR DURING 1946–52

OFFICE MEMORANDUM

OCTOBER 31, 1952.

To: Mr. Boris Stephen Yane, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization.
From: E. L. Keenan, Deputy Director, Bureau of Employment Security.
Subject: Operational data concerning certifications as to unavailability of domestic labor during 1946–52.

The data contained herein represent those instances in which the United States Employment Service furnished to the Attorney General of the United States a certification as to the unavailability of like domestic labor in connection with applications filed by employers requesting waiver of the labor-contract law. The data does not reflect whether the employer requests were for temporary (nonimmigrant) or permanent (immigrant), nor does it indicate that workers actually entered this country in the numbers indicated. It is further limited in that it applies only to requests from nonagricultural employers, exclusive of users of Canadians on a temporary basis by the woods industry in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York. The Canadian woods workers are admitted under the waiver provisions of the law implemented by arrangements between the United States and Canadian Governments.

The attached tables show information by broad occupational groupings:

Table I.—This table indicates the number of openings for which certification as to the unavailability of workers was made by calendar year. You will note that substantially large numbers of workers were primarily in the skilled occupations, and relatively small numbers in the professional. With respect to the professional groups, the small number of openings for which certifications were made may be due largely to the fact that the labor-contract law excludes mental workers from its provisions. Thus, in those instances in which the Immigration and Naturalization Service determined that the employer's application was for an alien to perform mental work, certification was not requested by the United States Employment Service. There appears to be a relationship between the annual total number of openings for which certification was made and the general labor-market conditions in this country during those years.

Table II.—Table II is prepared to show the number of different occupations for which certifications were made each year. The figures in the total 7-year-period column indicate the total number of different occupations for which certification was made during the entire period. For example, construction bricklayers (skilled group) may have been certified for in each of the 7 years. However, in the total column, it would appear as only one occupation. While 488 different occupations would appear a sizable number, it is less significant in terms of the thirty-odd-thousand identifiable occupations utilized in the United States, each of which requires different skills or a different skill level.

Table III.—The information contained herein is presented to show that, generally speaking, small numbers of openings are involved for each application filed by an employer. For instance, in the professional and managerial group for 1946, certification was made for 43 openings (see table I) representing 18 different occupations (see table II), but involved 39 employer requests (see table III). Thus, the number of openings per request averaged 1.1 per request and 2.3 number of openings per each occupation in the professional and managerial group for the year 1946.

These data are not a sample but constitute total activity for the years reported, exclusive of the use of Canadians in the New York and New England woods industry. Interpretations and conclusions are relatively difficult due to the problems of determining the interrelationship among such factors as—

1. Varying economic conditions;
2. Total size of labor force;
3. Total number of openings certified;
4. Small numbers of openings usually involved per request;
5. Wide range of occupations;
6. Quota problems which may have been a deterrent to employer application;
7. Inability of worker to independently apply for admission for employment;
8. Repetition of appearance in successive years of same needs, either due to

seasonal demand or inability to effect entrance of worker within authorized period; and

9. Inability to determine from Employment Service records the proportion approved by Immigration and Naturalization Service for permanent or temporary admission. Detailed sampling, however, indicates that a substantial proportion involved workers who were granted temporary admission.

Data on nonagricultural certifications, other than Canadian woodsworkers, compiled from individual employer folders

TABLE I. NUMBER OF OPENINGS

Occupations	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952 [1]	Total for 7-year period
Professional and managerial	43	23	34	25	27	94	87	333
Clerical and sales	3	7	49	2	2	3	1	67
Service	88	27	36	11	2	13	13	190
Fishery, forestry, and kindred	2	2	5	2			2	13
Skilled:								
Manufacturing	240	232	195	53	39	1,230	412	2,401
Nonmanufacturing	221	300	506	111	381	1,224	267	3,010
Semiskilled:								
Manufacturing	97	166	32	25	4	15	71	410
Nonmanufacturing	156	63	1	6	13	380	420	1,039
Unskilled:								
Manufacturing	183	1,031	1,003	75		84	51	2,427
Nonmanufacturing	268	22	88	144	144	230	242	1,138
Total	1,301	1,873	1,949	454	612	3,273	1,566	11,028

TABLE II. NUMBER OF OCCUPATIONS

Professional and managerial	18	12	12	8	5	15	25	67
Clerical and sales	2	3	6	1	1	3	1	13
Service	9	11	7	5	2	6	8	28
Fishery, forestry, and kindred	2	2	3	2			1	10
Skilled:								
Manufacturing	40	38	39	23	19	35	43	112
Nonmanufacturing	39	24	24	20	25	35	37	113
Semiskilled:								
Manufacturing	17	11	9	4	1	8	7	45
Nonmanufacturing	7	8	1	4	4	11	7	31
Unskilled:								
Manufacturing	7	4	4	1		3	2	13
Nonmanufacturing	5	3	3	1	1	5	4	15
Total	146	116	108	69	58	121	135	448

TABLE III. NUMBER OF INDIVIDUAL ORDERS

Professional and managerial	39	14	19	8	5	19	36	140
Clerical and sales	3	3	6	1	1	3	1	18
Service	13	16	9	6	2	7	9	62
Fishery, forestry, and kindred	2	2	3	2			1	10
Skilled:								
Manufacturing	87	54	66	33	28	55	65	388
Nonmanufacturing	55	44	45	27	45	67	48	331
Semiskilled:								
Manufacturing	17	15	9	5	1	8	7	62
Nonmanufacturing	11	9	1	4	4	33	46	108
Unskilled:								
Manufacturing	7	5	4	1		3	2	22
Nonmanufacturing	7	3	3	1	1	16	21	52
Total	241	165	165	88	87	211	235	1,193

[1] Through Oct. 17.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR CONCERNING MANPOWER ASPECTS OF IMMIGRATION POLICY; IMMIGRATION QUOTAS IN RELATION TO SIZE OF UNITED STATES POPULATION; AND POPULATION GROWTH AND CAPITAL INVESTMENT IN THE UNITED STATES, 1919–60

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS,
OFFICE OF THE COMMISSIONER,
Washington, D. C., November 4, 1952.

MR. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization, Washington, D. C.

DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: In accordance with our understanding with Mr. Boris S. Yane, I am happy to send you the following materials, prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the assistance of the President's Commission on Immigration and aliens in the United States.

1. Manpower aspects of immigration policy.
2. Immigration quotas in relation to size of United States population.
3. Population growth and capital investment in the United States, 1919–60.

The above materials may be considered as supplements to the statement which I presented at the public hearings of the Commission in Washington on October 27, 1952.

We have previously sent you: (1) Summaries of the economic situation for selected periods from 1907 to 1951; and (2) a selected list of references on immigration and aliens in the United States.

The opportunity to be of service to the Commission has been appreciated.

Very truly yours,

EWAN CLAGUE,
Commissioner of Labor Statistics.

MANPOWER ASPECTS OF IMMIGRATION POLICY

Immigration policy has often been considered in relation to the manpower requirements of the American economy. There are two basic considerations concerning the role of immigrants in meeting the manpower requirements of the United States which should be taken into account in formulating that policy. Both make it quite impossible to give any objective quantification of this relationship.

1. The manpower requirements of the United States in relation to immigration obviously vary with employment and over-all economic conditions in this country. Obviously enough, to take one extreme, during a period of depression, we do not even have the capacity to absorb the labor force resulting from our own population increase. Under these circumstances, a case can be made for cessation of all immigration. Under conditions of an expanding economy, with high levels of employment, it is just as obvious that immigration can play a part in meeting manpower requirements in this country. The amount of immigration that could be absorbed under these conditions becomes a theoretical problem related to the ultimate capacity of this country to absorb additional persons. For example, the figures will vary substantially depending on assumptions concerning technological advances on the farm, in terms of increasing the amount of food that can be produced per acre; similar technological advances in factories; etc.

2. A similar situation holds in terms of the relationship of immigration to manpower requirements in specific occupations. The difficulty in making this relationship and quantifying it stems from two factors:

(*a*) In terms of manpower requirements of the United States in such highly skilled or professional occupations as physicians, engineer, etc., there are important barriers and restrictions in terms of education, training, and licensure.

(*b*) One must also consider the manpower requirements of our allies and their needs for these professional and skilled personnel. Historically, we have made our gains by having immigrants to the United States join the stream of education and training in this country and in this way taking their place in various occupations, side by side with the native-born, in meeting occupational needs in this country.

When all is said and done, then, the relationship between manpower requirements of the United States and immigration becomes not a matter of quantity but a matter of outlook or philosophy concerning future economic conditions in the United States.

Thus, if one assumes a United States economy expanding in the future toward higher national product, national income, standard of living, one can easily find the proper place for immigrants. Contrariwise, in the setting of a stagnant economy, it is difficult to support, from a manpower point of view, any significant number of immigrants to the United States.

Immigration Quotas in Relation to Size of United States Population

A fixed volume of immigration each year means a constantly declining ratio of immigrants to the total population because of the natural increase in the population. The immigration quota of 165,000 in 1924 represented 145 persons per 100,000 in the population at that date. The same number of immigrants in 1952 would have resulted in a ratio of 105 per 100,000 population. By 1960, the proportion would be further reduced to 97 per 100,000 persons in the population (assuming the same level of immigration after July 1952).

On the other hand, if it is assumed that the immigration quota is related as a fixed percentage to the population, then the amount of immigration would increase proportionately with the growth of the total population. For example, the 1924 immigration quota of 165,000 is the equivalent, on this basis, to 228,000 in 1952, and to 248,000 in 1960.

Population Growth and Capital Investment in the United States, 1919–60

The gains in productivity which underlie both the rising standard of living of the United States and the increased leisure time available to American workers have been founded in large part upon a long-term growth in our stock of capital relative to population. Therefore, it is certainly pertinent to inquire whether immigration would increase our population so rapidly as to strain our productive resources and endanger the outlook for a continuation of this rising productivity. Although the following calculation is extremely rough and takes account only of the relationship between population and capital accumulation, it does suggest that rising productivity and rapidly increasing population are consistent.

Our national wealth, both public and private, has risen considerably faster than the population in the recent past. In the period 1919–51 our national stock of productive capital doubled, as compared with an increase in the total population of 46 percent. This growth has not been at a constant rate during the period and the most rapid increases in productive capital per person have not been associated with a slowly rising population. Conversely, when our stock of capital has declined relative to the population, it has not been an abnormally rapid rise in population which has been at fault. The depression period of the 1930's is a graphic example of this. The percentage increase in the population in the decade of the thirties was the smallest for any decade in our history, yet the per capita wealth of the Nation declined markedly, the result of little new investment in a period of business despondency.

In contrast, in the post-World War II period of high levels of employment and economic activity, capital investment has outrun by a considerable margin even our extraordinary rate of population growth. From 1946 to 1951 our stock of invested capital increased by an estimated 15 percent, as compared with an increase of population of 9 percent.

It seems clear that changes in the capital stock per person in the recent past have been primarily the result of factors other than population growth. Past experience indicates that we have the ability to increase our stock of productive wealth much more rapidly than the long-term rate of increase.

Projections of the population assuming medium trends of fertility and mortality and a net immigration of 400,000 annually have placed the population at 173 million in 1960, an increase of 12 percent over 1951. On the basis of the long-term increase in per capita wealth, this would require a gain of 19 percent in net investment. At the postwar rate of net capital accumulation, we would reach a level sufficient to maintain the long-term growth in per capita productive wealth at the end of the seventh year of the 9-year period.

TECHNICAL NOTE—CALCULATION OF NET CHANGES IN INVESTED WEALTH, 1919–51

The bench mark for this calculation of the productive wealth of the United States was Estimated National Wealth for 1922 of the Bureau of the Census. The estimate of total national wealth was reduced to exclude personal property, including personal motor vehicles. Annual net changes in the stock were computed in the following manner:

The Department of Commerce annual estimate of gross private domestic investment was reduced by estimated depreciation and accidental damage to fixed capital. Net foreign investment was then added to give annual changes in net private investment.

For the public sector, annual purchases by government (Federal and State and local) from business were reduced by 25 percent (estimated nondurables purchases) and the total depreciated at an annual rate of 10 percent, except in the war years, 1942–45, when an annual depreciation rate of 25 percent was used. Government construction was then added, and depreciated at a 2-percent annual rate. This provided estimates of net annual changes in capital formation for the period 1929–51.

Very little data on capital accumulation are available for the years previous to 1929. For the government sector, Kuznets' estimates of net changes in government construction were used.[1] All other government expenditures, available also from Kuznets but only as a single all-inclusive figure, were reduced by roughly 60 percent, the proportion assumed, from available data for subsequent years, to be the proportion expended on services and nondurables. The depreciation rates of 2 percent for construction and 10 percent for all other government also applied for these years.

Kuznets provides an estimate for gross private investment for the years 1919–29, but no estimates of depreciation. An examination of 1929 and subsequent years indicated that depreciation was a relatively stable quantity, depending as it does upon the stock of goods, rather than year-to-year changes. The 1929 level of depreciation and accidental damage as a constant for each year back to 1919 was therefore assumed.

Based upon an inspection of trends from 1929 to 1951, Department of Commerce price deflators for gross private domestic investment, 1919–51, were assumed to apply to government capital accumulation as well.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR CONCERNING METHOD USED BY THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS FOR ESTIMATING ADDITIONS TO THE LABOR FORCE IN 1955 AND 1960 RESULTING FROM ASSUMED LEVELS OF NET IMMIGRATION

OFFICE MEMORANDUM

NOVEMBER 7, 1952.

To: Mr. Boris S. Yane, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization.

From: Charles D. Stewart.

Subject: Method used by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for estimating additions to the labor force in 1955 and 1960 resulting from assumed levels of net immigration.

Following is the brief explanation which you requested for the use of the Executive Director of the Commission. We suggest that it be considered a technical note on table 1 accompanying the statement made by the Commissioner of Labor Statistics before the Commission on October 27, 1952.

Method used by Bureau of Labor Statistics for estimating additions to the labor force in 1955 and 1960 resulting from assumed levels of net immigration

The net additions to the labor force resulting from assumed levels of net immigration were computed in two basic steps:

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[1] Kuznets, Simon, National Product Since 1869. National Bureau of Economic Research, New York, 1946.

1. The number of immigrants under each assumption was distributed into 5-year age groups of men and women. This was done on the basis of the age-sex distribution of immigrants used by the United States Bureau of the Census in making the population projections published in P–25, No. 43, Illustrative Projections of the Population of the United States, 1950 to 1960. The matter of aging and mortality was partially taken into account by applying 5-year death rates to the immigrants in 1955 to estimate the number surviving to be 5 years older in 1960. For simplicity in computation, it was assumed that there were no deaths within the period 1953–55 among those admitted during that period and no deaths in the period 1955–60 to persons admitted during those years. This procedure does not materially affect the results, as can be seen from the fact that only 20,000 deaths would occur in the 5 years between 1955 and 1960 among the 600,000 immigrants admitted by 1955 under the assumption of 200,000 per year.

2. Projected labor force participation rates for 1955 and 1960, by age group, for men and women over 14 years were applied to the immigrant population in these age groups and the resulting labor force in each age was summed to obtain the total for immigrants 14 years and over. This step assumes that the rates of labor force participation for immigrants is the same in each age as for the United States population as a whole.

Labor force participation rate for immigrants in 1955 and 1960

1955:	
Based on population 14 years and over	59.4
Based on population of all ages	53.9
1960:	
Based on population 14 years and over	60.3
Based on population of all ages	55.2

LIST OF CRITICAL OCCUPATIONS, SUPPLIED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, EFFECTIVE MAY 7, 1951, AND REVISED TO AUGUST 26, 1952

NOTE.—Each occupation included has been determined on the basis of the following criteria:

(*a*) Under the foreseeable mobilization program an over-all shortage of workers in the occupation exists or is developing which will significantly interfere with effective functioning of essential industries and activities.

(*b*) A minimum accelerated training time of 2 years (or the equivalent in work experience) is necessary to the satisfactory performance of all the major tasks found in the occupation.

(*c*) The occupation is indispensable to the functioning of the industries or activities in which it occurs.

OCCUPATIONAL TITLES

Agronomist
Aircraft and engine mechanics (air transportation and manufacturing)
Airplane navigator, commercial
Airplane pilot, commercial
Airways operations specialist
Apprentice (critical occupations only)
Blacksmiths and hammersmiths
Boilermaker
Cable splicer, power
Chemist
Clinical psychologist
Dentist
Die setter
Driller, petroleum
Electrician, airplane
Electronic technician
Engineer draftsman, design
Engineers, marine, chiefs and assistants
Engineer, professional (all branches)
Entomologist
Farm operators and assistants
Foreman (critical operations only)
Fourdrinier wire weaver
Geologist
Geophysicist
Glass blower, laboratory apparatus
Heat treater, all around
Instrument repairman
Licensed mates
Lineman, power
Loftsman
Machinist
Maintenance mechanic, industrial
Masters and pilots
Mathematician
Metal miner, underground, all around
Metal spinner
Microbiologist (includes bacteriologist)

OCCUPATIONAL TITLES—continued

Millwright
Model maker
Molder and coremaker
Nurse, professional
Oil well servicing technician
Orthopedic appliance and limb technician
Osteopath
Parasitologist (plant or animal)
Patternmaker
Pharmacologist
Physician and surgeon
Physicist
Physiologist (plant or animal)
Plant pathologist
Precision lens grinders and polishers
Roller, iron and steel
Sawsmith
Shipfitter
Stillman
Teacher, college and vocational (critical occupations only)
Tool and die designer
Tool and die maker
Veterinarian

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES ATOMIC ENERGY COMMISSION CONCERNING REFERENCES ON CONTRIBUTIONS OF FOREIGN-BORN SCIENTISTS TO THE UNITED STATES ATOMIC ENERGY PROGRAM

ATOMIC ENERGY COMMISSION,
Washington, D. C., October 13, 1952.

Mr. HARRY ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director,
President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization,
Washington, D. C.

DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: As you requested, our Library people have done a search for references on contributions of foreign-born scientists to the United States atomic-energy program. The results are attached. You will find a good many duplications owing to the fact that we categorized the statements in two ways—alphabetically by the person making the statement quoted, alphabetically by the foreign-born scientist whose name was mentioned in the statement.

Sincerely yours,

MORSE SALISBURY,
Director, Division of Information Services.

General statements by—
- Hutchins, R. M.
- Ickes, H. L.
- Joint Committee on Atomic Energy
- Lilienthal, D. E.
- Oppenheimer, J. R.
- Smyth, H. D.
- Strauss, L. L.
- Waymack, W. W.

Scientists of foreign birth:
- Allibone, T. E.
- Baxter, J. W.
- Bethe, H. A.
- Bohr, N.
- Breit, G.
- Bretscher, E.
- Chadwick, Sir J.
- Debye, P.
- Einstein, A.
- Emelsus, K. G.
- Failla, G.
- Fermi, E.
- Fowler, R. H.
- Gamow, G.
- Gianque, W. F.
- Grosse, A. von
- Henne, A. L.
- Kingdon, K. H.
- Kistiakowsky, G. B.
- Lattes, C. M. G.
- Lauritsen, C. C.
- Lauritsen, T.
- Massey, H. S. W.
- Neumann, J. von
- Oliphant, M. L. E.
- Peierls, R.
- Penny, W. C.
- Rabi, I. I.
- Rossi, B.
- Segre, E.
- Skinner, H. W. B.
- Slotin, L. B.
- Smith, C. S.
- Szilard, L.
- Taylor, G.
- Taylor, H. S.
- Teller, E.
- Thornton, R. L.
- Weisskopf, V. F.
- Westendorp, W. F.
- Wigner, E. P.
- Wilkinson, V. J. R.
- Yukawa, H.
- Zinn, W. H.

"Let's look at the international situation with regard to the construction of the atomic bomb. Fermi was in Italy. Hahn was in Germany. Niels Bohr was in Denmark. Five or six of the most important men on the Manhattan project are Hungarians who had worked in Hungary in this field. The basic work of Chadwick in England was fundamental to the development."

"Now, we grabbed them all—not the men, but we grabbed some of the men, as many as Hitler and Mussolini honored us by sending here, but we grabbed their ideas, and we made the bomb. I think it can be shown that there is some Japanese scientific influence behind the bomb as well."—Statement by Dr. Robert M. Hutchins, chancelor of the University of Chicago, January 25, 1946 (hearings before the Special Committee on Atomic Energy, U. S. Senate, 79th Cong., 2d sess., on S. 1717, pt. 2, p. 129).

"From the days when the refugee du Ponts first settled here, at the invitation of Thomas Jefferson, to the arrival of those great refugee scientists who played so preeminent a role in the conquest of the atom, Einstein and Fermi and their many distinguished collaborators, we have been not only safeguarding liberty but enjoying its rich fruits. I hope that day will never come when the thinking of scientists is so hedged about with petty restrictions that, as happened in Germany and Italy, foreign scientists will not want to come here and our own scientists will not want to stay."—Statement of Hon. Harold L. Ickes, Secretary of the Interior, January 23, 1946 (hearings before the Special Committee on Atomic Energy, U. S. Senate, 79th Cong., 2d sess., on S. 1717, pt. 1, p. 91).

"Such towering scientific figures as Niels Bohr of Denmark and Sir James Chadwick of Great Britain, together with dozens of associates from almost all countries except Russia, came to the United States during the war, participated intimately in the Manhattan District project, rendered priceless service, and returned to their native lands when hostilities ended. Equally notable figures from abroad—Enrico Fermi of Italy, and Hungarian-born Leo Szilard, for example—shared in our atomic effort, and established permanent American residence following the war."—Joint Committee on Atomic Energy, Investigation Into the United States Atomic Energy Commission, Eighty-first Congress, first session, Senate Report No. 1169, October 13, 1949, page 8.

"The development of the atomic bomb itself was the result of the working together of men of science and technology in Great Britain, Canada, the United States."—Remarks by David E. Lilienthal, Chairman, United States Atomic Energy Commission, at preview supper for opening of the atomic-energy exhibit at the Golden Jubilee Exposition, New York City, August 21, 1948.

"Mr. JOHNSON. Dr. Oppenheimer, this work has been done by a great many noted scientists?

"Dr. OPPENHEIMER. Yes, sir.

"Mr. JOHNSON. I think you ought to put into the record, if you know, who the men are who received the Nobel prize, who worked on this project.

"The CHAIRMAN. Dr. Oppenheimer is one of them.

"Dr. OPPENHEIMER. No, I am not, but there are many of my friends who are. There is the great Danish scientist, Bore [Sic]. He contributed enormously. Sir James Chadwick, an English scientist; Dr. Compton, Dr. Lawrence, Dr. Anderson of the Institute of Technology. I am forgetting many important names. There are many."—Dr. J. R. Oppenheimer. (Hearings before the Committee on Military Affairs, House of Representatives, 79th Cong., 1st sess. on H. R. 4280, p. 129.)

"Professor Oliphant and his team from Birmingham University were moved to Berkeley to work with Professor Lawrence's group engaged in research on the electromagnetic isotope separation project. They were joined by other physicists from Britain including Professor Massey of University College, London, Dr. H. W. Skinner of Bristol University, Dr. Allibone and Dr. Wilkinson who worked partly at Berkeley and partly at the electro-magnetic separation plant itself. Dr. Emelens of Imperial College, London, Dr. J. P. Baxter and others were transferred to the electro-magnetic plant."

"Dr. Frisch from the Liverpool nuclear physics group and Dr. Bretscher from the corresponding Cambridge section, together with some members of their teams, were moved into the great American T. A. Research establishment at Los Alamos * * *"

"They were joined, at that time or later, by a number of other British scientists including Professor Peierls and Dr. Penny, of Imperial College, London University. Prof. Sir Geoffrey Taylor paid several visits to the establishment."—Smyth, H. D., Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 286.

"The announcement of the hypothesis of fission and its experimental confirmation took place in January 1939. There was immediate interest in the possible military use of the large amounts of energy release in fission. The early efforts both at restricting publication and at getting Government support were stimulated largely by a small group of foreign-born physicists centering on L. Szilard and including E. Wigner, E. Teller, V. F. Weisskopf and E. Fermi."—Smyth, H. D., Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 45.

"The new tools at Brekeley, the Argonne, Oak Ridge, Brookhaven, and in many university laboratories will soon be serving men like Lawrence, Fermi, Seaborg, Compton, Rabi, Oppenheimer, Spedding, Sinn [sic], Alvarez, and their brilliant associates, and new discoveries as dazzling as those which have been made will be forthcoming."—Remarks of Lewis L. Strauss, member, United States Atomic Energy Commission, before the University of New Hampshire, October 9, 1948.

"For it was only in 1896 that Becquerel discovered the phenomenon of radioactivity, and the subsequent work of Einstein, Rutherford, Bohr, Millikan, Fermi, Compton, Lawrence, and many others in the galaxy of brilliant men and women, has exposed the atom and its nucleus to our intellectual contemplation."—Remarks by Lewis L. Strauss, member United States Atomic Energy Commission, before the New York Academy of Medicine, October 30, 1947.

"Civilian scientists of many nations, pressing zealously for new knowledge in the normal way of scientists, step by step had come to the discovery of nuclear fission (splitting the atom) just before the outbreak of World War II * * * The war put an urgency into it that greatly increased the pace. The research and experiments were under wartime wraps. The work came to be concentrated in the United States. Anti-Fascist scientists who had fled Europe played a tremendous role."—Remarks of W. W. Waymack, member, United States Atomic Energy Commission, before the Illinois Welfare Association, Chicago, November 26, 1947.

"Even a casual look at the background must make clear as crystal to anyone the fact that the release of atomic energy, and all that comes with it, is the result of a world-wide search for knowledge which began farther back than we can probe and which in later stages, was thoroughly international. Any look at the record that is more than casual will reveal that many more of the major contributions to the basic knowledge required were made by scientists of other nations. American contributions were fine; there is no need to deprecate them. But to miss the point that more of the basic discoveries came from abroad would be dangerously unrealistic—"dangerously" because it would obscure the fact that up to now America has depended heavily on the rest of the world in basic scientific research. It would obsure the fact that we are today dependent for further advance upon a comparative few."—Remarks of Commissioner W. W. Waymack, United States Atomic Energy Commission, before the Council on World Affairs. Cleveland, Ohio, April 2, 1948.

"Anti-Nazi scientists, some of them in America, stimulating and cooperating with American scientists, educated President Roosevelt as to the bomb possibility * * * On December 2, 1942, right here in the Middle West, in a room under the stands of Stagg Field at the University of Chicago, with the participation of an international band of scientists and of American scientists from many sections * * * the first nuclear chain reaction in history was demonstrated."—Remarks of Commissioner W. W. Waymack, United, States Atomic Energy Commission, the State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, June 11, 1948.

Allibone, T. E. (England)

"Professor Oliphant and his team from Birmingham University were moved to Berkeley to work with Professor Lawrence's group engaged in research on the electromagnetic isotope separation project. They were joined by other physicists from Britain including Professor Massey of University College, London, Dr. H. W. Skinner of Bristol University, Dr. Allibone and Dr. Wilkinson who worked partly at Berkeley and partly at the electromagnetic separation plant itself. Dr. Emeleus of Imperial College, London, Dr. J. F. Baxter and others were transferred to the electromagnetic plant."

"Dr. Frisch from the Liverpool nuclear physics group and Dr. Bretscher from the corresponding Cambridge section, together with some members of their teams, were moved into the great American T. A. Research Establishment at Los Alamos * * *"

"They were joined, at that time or later, by a number of other British scientists including Professor Peierls and Dr. Penny, of Imperial College, London University. Prof. Sir Geoffrey Taylor paid several visits to the establishment." —Smyth, H. D., *Atomic Energy for Military Purposes*, Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press 1945, page 286.

Baxter, J. W. (Great Britain)

"Professor Oliphant and his team from Birmingham University were moved to Berkeley to work with Professor Lawrence's group engaged in research on the electromagnetic isotope separation project. They were joined by other physicists from Britain including Professor Massey, of University College, London, Dr. H. W. Skinner, of Bristol University, Dr. Allibone and Dr. Wilkinson who worked partly at Berkeley and partly at the electromagnetic separation plant itself. Dr. Emeleus, of Imperial College, London, Dr. J. W. Baxter and others were transferred to the electromagnetic plant."—Smyth, H. D., *Atomic Energy for Military Purposes*. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press 1945, page 286.

Bethe, Hans A. (Germany, 1906)

"There were two considerations that gave unusual importance to the work of the Theoretical Physics Division under H. Bethe. The first of these was the necessity for effecting simultaneous development of everything from the fundamental materials to the method of putting them to use—all despite the virtual unavailability of the principal materials (U-235 and plutonium) and the complete novelty of the processes The second consideration was the impossibility of producing (as for experimental purposes) a 'small-scale' atomic explosion by making use of only a small amount of fissionable material. (No explosion occurs at all unless the mass of the fissionable material exceeds the critical mass.) Thus it was necessary to proceed from data obtained in experiments on infinitesimal quantities of materials and to combine it with the available theories as accurately as possible in order to make estimates as to what would happen in the bomb. Only in this way was it possible to make sensible plans for other parts of the project, and to make decisions on design and construction without waiting for elaborate experiments on large quantities of material. * * * The determination of the critical size of the bomb was one of the main problems of the Theoretical Physics Division."—Smyth, H. D., Atomic Energy for Military Purposes, Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 214.

"For example, Dr. Bethe and Dr. Teller in the area of fundamental and analytical nuclear considerations. The fact that men of their caliber were willing to give their time and found it worth while to give their time * * *."—Dr. Mervin J. Kelly, executive vice president, Bell Laboratories, Inc. (Investigation into the United States Atomic Energy Project. Hearings before the Joint Committee on Atomic Energy, Congress of the United States, 81st Cong., 1st sess., pt. 20, p. 812.)

Bohr, Niels (Denmark)

"For it was only in 1896 that Becquerel discovered the phenomenon of radioactivity, and the subsequent work of Einstein, Rutherford, Bohr, Millikan, Fermi, Compton, Lawrence, and many others in the galaxy of brilliant men and women, has exposed the atom and its nucleus to our intellectual contemplation."—Remarks of Lewis L. Strauss, member of the United States Atomic Energy Commission, before the New York Academy of Medicine, October 30, 1947.

"The participants included a large number of the pioneer explorers of the nucleus of the atom who later played a major part in the development of the atomic bomb. Among them were Drs. Bohr, Fermi, I. I. Rabi * * *."—Lawrence, W. L., Dawn Over Zero, New York, Knopf, 1947, page 44.

"* * * Lise Meitner, was forced to flee Berlin for her life. She had been engaged with two colleagues in an experiment at the Kaiser Wilhelm Institute and had to leave before it was completed. * * * Subsequently, safe in Copenhagen, she was able to complete her computations and made a report of them. The result of the experiment showed that the nucleus of the atom of uranium had been split. Miss Meitner concluded that huge amounts of energy must have been released in such a fission and she computed it to be 200 million electron volts.

"This was the report which the Nobel Laureate, Niels Bohr, brought to his friends in America in January 1939. From that message grew our atomic energy enterprise * * *."—Remarks of Commissioner Lewis L. Strauss, United States Atomic Energy Commission, at the California Institute of Technology associates dinner, Los Angeles, Calif., November 8, 1949.

"Mr. JOHNSON. Dr. Oppenheimer, this work has been done by a great many noted scientists?

"Dr. OPPENHEIMER. Yes, sir.

"Mr. JOHNSON. I think you ought to put in the record, if you know, who the men are who received the Nobel prize, who worked on this project.

"The CHAIRMAN. Dr. Oppenheimer is one of them.

"Dr. OPPENHEIMER. No, I am not, but there are many of my friends who are. There is the great Danish scientist, Bore [sic]. He contributed enormously. Sir James Chadwick, an English scientist; Dr. Compton, Dr. Lawrence, Dr. Anderson, of the Institute of Technology. I am forgetting many important names. There are many."—Dr. J. R. Oppenheimer (hearings before the Committee on Military Affairs, House of Representatives. H. R. 4280, An Act for the Development and Control of Atomic Energy, October 9, 18, 1945, 79th Cong., 1st sess., p. 129.)

"In the winter of 1938–39, Bohr was working with Einstein at the Institute for Advanced Study, in Princeton, N. J., and it was through his presence there that he was able to help set the Allies on the path to the manufacture of the atomic bomb."—Current Biography, 1945. New York, H. W. Wilson Co.

"Such towering scientific figures as Niels Bohr, of Denmark, and Sir James Chadwick, of Great Britain, together with dozens of associates from almost all countries except Russia, came to the United States during the war, participated intimately in the Manhattan District project, rendered priceless service, and returned to their native lands when hostilities ended. Equally notable figures from abroad—Enrico Fermi, of Italy, and Hungarian-born Leo Szilard, for example—shared in our atomic effort and established permanent American residence following the war."—Joint Committee on Atomic Energy, Investigation Into the United States Atomic Energy Commission, Senate Report No. 1169, October 13, 1949, Eighty-first Congress, first session, page 8.

Breit, Gregory (Russia)

"The theory of the absorption of neutrons at, and in the vicinity of, the resonance peaks was worked out by G. Breit and E. P. Wigner in the United States in 1936, and the resulting Breit-Wigner formula, as it is called, has formed the basis of the interpretation of neutron cross sections."—Glasstone, S. Sourcebook on Atomic Energy, New York, D. Van Nostrand, 1950, page 313.

"The third initial objective of the metallurgical project was to obtain theoretical and experimental data on a 'fast neutron' reaction, such as would be required in an atomic bomb. This aspect of the work was initially planned and coordinted by G. Breit, of the University of Wisconsin, and later continued by J. R. Oppenheimer, of the University of California."—Smyth, H. D., Atomic Energy for Military Purposes, Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 103.

Bretscher, E. (Switzerland)

"Dr. Frisch, from the Liverpool nuclear-physics group, and Dr. Bretscher, from the corresponding Cambridge section, together with some members of their teams, were moved into the great American T. A. research establishment at Los Alamos * * *."—Smyth, H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press. 1945, page 286.

Chadwick, Sir James (Great Britain)

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"Chadwick was the head of a British delegation which contributed materially to the success of the laboratory [Los Alamos]."—Smyth, H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press. 1945. Page 214.

Debye, Peter (Netherlands)

"Chancellor Arthur H. Compton of Washington University, who was one of the outstanding contributors to work on the atomic bomb, received the Nobel Prize in physics in 1927 because of his explanation of the inelastic scattering of light quanta by free electrons. Simultaneously, Peter Debye, now chairman of the Department of Chemistry at Cornell but then a Dutch citizen and professor at the University of Utrecht, was announcing the same conclusions based on parallel researches. American physicists speak understandingly of 'the Compton effect'; their colleagues in the Netherlands mean precisely the same thing when they speak of 'the Debye effect.' "—Gellhorn, W. Security, Loyalty, and Science. Ithaca, N. Y., Cornell University Press, 1950, page 14.

Einstein, A. (Germany)

"It bears repeating that the men who stimulated this country's interest in attempting to use the Hahn-Strassman discovery of the fissionability of uranium were Enrico Fermi, who won the Nobel Prize in physics when he was a professor in his native Italy, and Albert Einstein, Leo Szilard, and Eugene P. Wigner, all of whom were mature scientists before they were American citizens."—Gellhorn, W. Security, Loyalty, and Science. Ithaca, N. Y., Cornell University Press, 1950, page 13.

"From the days when the refugee du Ponts first settled here, at the invitation of Thomas Jefferson, to the arrival of those great refugee scientists who played so preeminent a role in the conquest of the atom, Einstein and Fermi and their many distinguished collaborators, we have been not only safeguarding liberty but enjoying its rich fruits. I hope that day will never come when the thinking of scientists is so hedged about with petty restrictions that, as happened in Germany and Italy, foreign scientists will not want to come here and our own scientists will not want to stay."—Statement of Hon. Harold L. Ickes, Secretary of the Interior, January 23, 1946 (hearings before the Special Committee on Atomic Energy, United States Senate on S. 1717, a bill for the development and control of Atomic Energy, pt. I, 79th Cong., 2d sess., p. 91).

"For it was only in 1896 that Becquerel discovered the phenomenon of radioactivity, and the subsequent work of Einstein, Rutherford, Bohr, Millikan, Fermi, Compton, Lawrence, and many others in the galaxy of brilliant men and women, has exposed the atom and its nucleus to our intellectual contemplation."—Remarks of Lewis L. Strauss, member of the United States Atomic Energy Commission, before the New York Academy of Medicine, October 30, 1947.

Emeleus, K. G. (Great Britain)

"Professor Oliphant and his team from Birmingham University were moved to Berkeley to work with Professor Lawrence's group in research on the electromagnetic isotope separation project. They were joined by other physicists from Britain including Professor Massey of University College, London, Dr. H. W. Skinner of Bristol University, Dr. Allibone, and Dr. Wilkinson who worked partly at Berkeley and partly at the electromagnetic separation plant itself. Dr. Emeleus of Imperial College, London, Dr. J. P. Baxter, and others were transferred to the Electromagnetic plant."—Smyth, H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 286.

Failla, Gioacchino (Italy)

Member, Advisory Committee on Biology and Medicine, USAEC.

Fermi, E. (Italy)

"The new tools at Berkeley, the Argonne, Oak Ridge, Brookhaven, and in many university laboratories will soon be serving men like Lawrence, Fermi, Seaborg, Compton, Rabi, Oppenheimer, Spedding, Sinn [sic], Alvarez, and their

brilliant associates; and new discoveries as dazzling as those which have been made will be forthcoming."—Remarks of Lewis L. Strauss, member, United States Atomic Energy Commission before the University of New Hampshire, October 9, 1948.

"It bears repeating that the men who stimulated this country's interest in attempting to use the Hahn-Strassman discovery of the fissionability of uranium were Enrico Fermi, who had won the Nabel Prize in physics when he was a professor in his native Italy, and Albert Einstein, Leo Szilard, and Eugene P. Wigner, all of whom were mature scientists before they were American citizens."—Gellhorn, W. Security, Loyalty, and Science. Ithaca, N. Y., Cornell University Press, 1950, page 13.

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"Such towering scientific figures as Niels Bohr of Denmark and Sir James Chadwick of Great Britain, together with dozens of associates from almost all countries except Russia, came to the United States during the war, participated intimately in the Manhattan District project, rendered priceless service, and returned to their native lands when hostilities ended. Equally notable figures from abroad—Enrico Fermi of Italy and Hungarian-born Leo Szilard, for example—shared in our atomic effort and established permanent American residence following the war."—Joint Committee on Atomic Energy. Investigation into the United States Atomic Energy Commission. Senate Report No. 1169, October 13, 1949. Eighty-first Congress, first session, page 8.

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"The announcement of the hypothesis of fission and its experimental confirmation took place in January 1939. There was immediate interest in the possible military use of the large amounts of energy released in fission. The early efforts both at restricting publication and at getting Government support were stimulated largely by a small group of foreign-born physicists centering on L. Szilard and including E. Wigner, E. Teller, V. F. Weisskopf, and E. Fermi.—Smyth, H. D., *Atomic Energy for Military Purpose.* Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 45.

"From the days when the refugee du Ponts first settled here, at the invitation of Thomas Jefferson, to the arrival of those great refugee scientists who played so preeminent a role in the conquest of the atom, Einstein and Fermi and their many distinguished collaborators, we have been not only safeguarding liberty but enjoying its rich fruits. I hope that day will never come when the thinking of scientists is so hedged about with petty restrictions that, as happened in Germany and Italy, foreign scientists will not want to come here and our own scientists will not want to stay."—Statement of Hon. Harold L. Ickes, Secretary of the Interior, January 23, 1946 (hearing before the Special Committee on Atomic Energy, United States Senate on S. 1717, a bill for the development and control of atomic energy, p. I, 79th Cong., 2d sess, page 91).

"In May of this year [1945], 2 months before the test in New Mexico showed conclusively that the atomic bomb would work, Secretary Stimson, with the approval of the President, appointed an interim committee to recommend legislation that would insure that this discovery would be controlled and developed in the best interests of the people of this country * * *."

"The members were also aided by the advice and experience of eminent scientists who had rendered invaluable service in the atomic bomb project.—Dr. J. R. Oppenheimer, Dr. E. O. Lawrence, Dr. Enrico Fermi, and Dr. Arthur H. Compton."—Statement of the Honorable Robert P. Patterson, Secretary of War, October 9, 1945 (hearings before the Committee on Military Affairs, House of Representatives, 79th Cong., 1st sess., on H. R. 4280, pages 4–5).

"Dr. GUNN. On March 17, 1939, there was a discussion at Navy Department, with both Navy and Army officers present, and scientists of the Naval Research Laboratory, of which I was one. A meeting was held, at which Professor Fermi and Professor Pegram, of Columbia University, were present. Fermi was known to me as a highly competent physicist, unexcitable, conservative.

"The CHAIRMAN (Senator McMahon). You had great confidence in Fermi?

"Dr. GUNN. We think very highly of Fermi. He was an experimenter in

nuclear physics, and an outstanding exponent at that time."—Hearings before the Special Committee on Atomic Energy, United States Senate. Senate Resolution 179, a resolution creating a Special Committee To Investigate Problems Relating to the Development, Use, and Control of Atomic Energy, part 3, page 366, Seventy-ninth Congress, first session (Dr. Ross Gunn, technical adviser to the Naval Administration of the Naval Research Laboratory).

'These men have long been associated with research on, and the development of, the atomic bomb. Dr. Oppenheimer was in charge of the work in New Mexico on the perfection of the bomb itself. Dr. Fermi, who received the Nobel Prize for physics in 1938 for his work on the neutron and other nuclear phenomena, has work closely closely with Dr. Oppenheimer throughout the project. * * * Because of the importance of their work on the bomb project, it occurred to me that you and your committee would surely be interested in having the views of these * * * scientists."—Robert P. Patterson, Secretary of War, in a letter to Andrew J. May, Chairman, Military Affairs Committee, House of Representatives, dated October 12, 1945 (hearings before the Committee on Military Affairs, House of Representatives H. R. 4280, an act for the Development and Control of Atomic Energy, October 9, 18, 1945. 79th Cong., 1st sess., pp. 106–107).

"Self-exiled Italian physicist, consultant to the Argonne National Laboratory and professor of physics at the University of Chicago, received the Nobel Prize in 1938. He was cited by the War Department as the first man to achieve nuclear chain reaction. During the war he was associate director of the Los Alamos Laboratory. Fermi was born in Rome and was professor of theoretical physics at the University of Rome from 1927 to 1938, when he left the country because of opposition to fascism. He was the first to systematize the science of physics in Italy. Mr. Fermi studied at the University of Pisa, Italy, from 1918 to 1922, and has honorary degrees from the Universities of Utrecht and Heidelberg. Before coming to Chicago with the Metallurgical Laboratory, Fermi worked at Columbia University."—Robinson, G. O. The Oak Ridge Story. Kingsport, Tenn., Southern Publishers, Inc., 1950, page 177.

Fowler, R. H. (Great Britain)

"He arrived in Ottawa in late July 1940. He had just been in the United States as a member of the Tizard mission sent out from the United Kingdom to enlist American collaboration in radar development and other war research. Fowler reported that experiments with uranium and carbon, similar in purpose to the work in Ottawa, although somewhat different in methods were already well advanced in the United States. A visit to Dr. L. J. Briggs at the Bureau of Standards in Washington and to Professor Peagram's laboratory in Columbia led to an exchange of technical information related to the Ottawa experiments during the following year before the United States entered the war.

"* * * development of methods for the production of plutonium, in an atomic-energy reactor containing natural uranium * * *. The idea had been considered in the United Kingdom for some time and had been mentioned by Professor Fowler during a visit to the United States as early as January 1941."—Laurence, George C. Canada's Participation in Atomic Energy Development. Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists, 3, 326 (November 1947).

Gamow, George (Russia)

"The first experiments on nuclear transmutation were naturally carried out with swift alpha particles because of their availability, but the wave-mechanical calculations made by G. Gamow in 1928 suggested that other charged particles might be more effective. He showed that not only was the energy barrier lower, but the probability of penetrating it and reaching an atomic nucleus also increased, as the charge and mass of the incident particle decreased" (p. 218).

"* * * an atomic nucleus has been compared in its behavior to a drop of liquid. This analogy appears to have been suggested by G. Gamow in 1930, and it has been employed by nuclear physicists from time to time" (p. 358).—Glasstone, S. Sourcebook on Atomic Energy. New York, D. Van Nostrand, 1950.

"George Gamow, nuclear physicist, is known for his scientific studies as well as for his books for the general public. He has made studies in the field of theoretical physics, particularly in the application of nuclear reactions to the evolution of stars; and he has (as of 1951) written and illustrated eight books, the popular style of which has attracted laymen readers. In 1934, after lecturing at European and American universities, he joined the faculty of the George Washington University as professor of theoretical physics" (p. 10).

"During and after World War II Gamow, who was given American citizenship in 1940, served as consultant to several Navy and Air Force boards, to the Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory, to Johns Hopkins University on Army and Navy contract work, and to the Rand Corp. on Air Force contract work" (p. 12).—Current Biography. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., October 1951.

Giauque, William F. (Canada)

"The 1949 Nobel prize for chemistry was awarded to Dr. William F. Giauque 'for his contribution to chemical thermodynamics, especially for his investigations of the properties of substances at extremely low temperatures.' Giauque has been associated with the University of California for more than 30 years, as student, instructor, and professor of chemistry."—Current Biography. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1950.

"The discovery * * * [1929] by F. W. Giauque and H. L. Johnston, in the United States, that atmospheric oxygen is a mixture of three isotopes, showed that (physical) atomic weights obtained by the mass spectrograph could not be identified with the chemical values, as explained above."—Glasstone, S. Sourcebook on Atomic Energy. New York, D. Van Nostrand Co., 1950, page 196.

Von Grosse, A. (Russia)

"Urey and A. Von Grosse had already been considering the concentration of heavy water by means of a catalytic exchange reaction between hydrogen gas and liquid water."—Smyth, H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 69.

"The most effective catalyst of this type [for the production of heavy water] was discovered by H. S. Taylor at Princeton University, while a second, less active catalyst was discovered by A. von Grosse."—Smyth, H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 169.

Henne, A. L. (Belgium)

"As in the plutonium problem, so here also, there were many questions of corrosion, etc., to be investigated. New coolants and lubricants were developed by A. L. Henne and his associates, by G. H. Cady, by W. T. Miller and his coworkers, by E. T. McBee and his associates, and by scientists of various corporations including Hooker Electrochemical Co., the du Pont Co., and the Harshaw Chemical Co."—Smyth, H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, pages 182–183.

Kingdon, K. H. (Jamaica, British West Indies)

"By using the electromagnetic technique, A. O. Nier at the University of Minnesota, and K. H. Kingdon and H. C. Pollock, at the General Electric Laboratories, Schenectady, N. Y., were able in 1940 to obtain sufficient uranium 235 to provide the answer to a vital problem in connection with the utilization of nuclear energy."—Glasstone, S. Sourcebook on Atomic Energy. New York, D. Van Nostrand, 1950, pages 204–205.

Kistiakowsky, George B. (Russia, 1900)

"For administrative purposes the scientific staff at Los Alamos was arranged in seven divisions, which have been rearranged at various times. During the spring of 1945 the divisions were: * * * Explosives Division under G. B. Kistiakowsky * * *" (p. 213).

"In and around the shelter were some twenty-odd people concerned with last-minute arrangements. Included were Dr. Oppenheimer, the Director who had borne the great scientific burden of developing the weapon from the raw materials made in Tennessee and Washington, and a dozen of his key assistants, Dr. Kistiakowsky * * *" (p. 252).—Smyth, H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945.

"The last men to inspect the tower with its cosmic bomb (at Alamogordo) were Dr. Bainbridge, Dr. Kistiakowsky, and Lt. Howard C. Bush * * *"—Lawrence, W. L. Dawn Over Zero. New York. Knopf, 1947, page 191. Member, Advisory Committee on Chemistry, U. S. A. E. C.

Lattes, Cesare M. G. (Brazil)

"The Brazilian physicist C. M. G. Lattes, working in collaboration with scientist Eugene Gardner of the University of California, succeeded in 1948, in a sense, in producing matter from pure energy * * *

"On February 12, 1948, * * * Lattes arrived in Berkeley, Calif.; he had been granted a Rockefeller Foundation national research fellowship as consultant

at the University of California Radiation Laboratory. There the Brazilian began work with Dr. Eugene Gardner * * * Working on an Atomic Energy Commission contract, Lattes and Gardner combined their techniques * * *

"When announced by University of California laboratory director E. O. Lawrence on March 8, 1948, the discovery [production of mesons] was hailed as a 'momentous achievement'; the AEC research director, Dr. James B. Fisk, called it 'of overwhelming importance for the handle it provides in working to understand fundamental forces.' The production of mesons, it was pointed out, might be regarded as developing matter from energy."—Current Biography. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1949.

"Prof. Henry DeW. Smyth of Princeton, now a member of the Atomic Energy Commission, tells an illuminating anecdote involving a brilliant young Brazilian, C. M. G. Lattes, who, still in his twenties, has been appointed to a professorship at the University of Sao Paulo. Dr. Lattes studied at Sao Paulo and subsequently at the University of Bristol. Then he went to Berkeley to visit the Radiation Laboratory of the University of California. By applying work he had previously done in connection with the tracks of mesons produced by cosmic rays, the Brazilian scientist quickly discovered that mesons, the forces which hold the particles of the atomic nucleus together, were being produced artificially by the big cyclotron at Berkeley. Until that time the California physicists had been unaware that the cyclotron had been manufacturing mesons for months, though this has subsequently been described as one of the most important events in physics since the war."—Gellhorn, W. Security, Loyalty, and Science. Ithaca, N. Y., Cornell University Press, 1950, pages 13–14.

Lauritsen, Charles C. (Denmark, 1892)

"A more rugged form of electroscope was devised by C. C. Lauritsen * * * They are the standard field instrument for testing the level of gamma radiation, particularly as a safeguard against dangerous exposure."—Smyth, H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 229.

"I am reassured, however, in noting that not one, but both Lauritsens are listed along with Dr. Fowler as principal investigators on one of the research projects which the Atomic Energy Commission is helping to support here at Cal Tech."—Remarks of Commissioner Lewis L. Strauss, United States Atomic Energy Commission, at the California Institute of Technology Associates Dinner, Los Angeles, Calif., November 8, 1949.

"One of the simplest and generally useful devices of the electrostatic type of ionization chamber is the quartz-fiber electroscope invented by C. C. Lauritsen and T. Lauritsen in the United States in 1937."—Glasstone, S. Sourcebook on Atomic Energy. New York, D. Van Nostrand Co., 1950, page 134.

Lauritsen, Thomas (Denmark, 1915)

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"An analysis of the rate of the neutron intensity by the American physicists E. T. Booth, J. R. Dunning, and F. G. Slack in 1939, and later in the same year by K. J. Brostrom, J. Koch, and T. Lauritsen, in Denmark, revealed the presence of four decay periods." P. 356.—Glasstone, S. Sourcebook on Atomic Energy. New York, D. Van Nostrand Co., 1950.

Massey, H. S. W. (Great Britain)

"Professor Oliphant and his team from Birmingham University were moved to Berkeley to work with Professor Lawrence's group engaged in research on the electromagnetic isotope separation project. They were joined by other physicists from Britain including Professor Massey of University College, London, Dr. H. W. Skinner of Bristol University, Dr. Allibone and Dr. Wilinson who worked partly at Berkeley and partly at the electromagnetic separation plant itself. Dr. Emeleus of Imperial College, London, Dr. J. P. Baxter and others were transferred to the electromagnetic plant."—Smyth, H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 286.

Neumann, John von (Hungary)

Member, General Advisory Committee, USAEC.

Oliphant, Marcus L. E. (Australia, 1901)

"A leading member of the team of British scientists who assisted in the development of the atomic bomb is Prof. Marcus L. Oliphant, now director of the School of Research in Physical Sciences at the Australian National University. One of his major contributions in the field of nuclear physics has been his design of heavy high-voltage apparatus. Oliphant has often been a spokesman for the group of British scientists who have opposed attempts to keep a monopoly on the manufacture of the atom bomb, and he has repeatedly urged intensive development of industrial use of atomic energy and outlawing the use of the bomb."—Current Biography 12, 46 (December 1951).

"Oliphant and his team from Birmingham University were moved to Berkeley to work with Professor Lawrence's group engaged in the research on the electromagnetic isotope separation project."—Smyth, H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 286.

Peierls, R. (Great Britain)

"Dr. Frisch from the Liverpool nuclear physics group and Dr. Bretscher from the corresponding Cambridge section, together with some members of their teams, were moved into the great American T. A. research establishment at Los Alamos * * *"

"They were joined, at that time or later, by a number of other British scientists including Professor Peierls and Dr. Penny, of Imperial College, London University. Professor Sir Geoffrey Taylor paid several visits to the establishment."—Smyth, H. E., Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press. 1945, page 286.

Penny, W. C. (Great Britain)

"Dr. Frisch from the Liverpool nuclear physics group and Dr. Brescher from the corresponding Cambridge section, together with some members of their teams, were moved into the great American T. A. research establishment at Los Alamos * * *"

"They were joined, at that time or later, by a number of other British scientists including Professor Peierls and Dr. Penny, of Imperial College, London University."—Smyth, H. D., Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press. 1945, page 286.

"The other is Dr. Penny, professor of applied mathematics at London University, one of the group of eminent British scientists at Los Alamas."—Laurence, W. L., Dawn Over Zero. New York, Knopf, 1947, page 231.

Rabi, Isidor I. (Austria, 1898)

"The participants included a large number of the pioneer explorers of the nucleus of the atom who later played a major part in the development of the atomic bomb. Among them were Drs. Bohr, Fermi, I. I. Rabi * * *"—Laurence, W. L., Dawn Over Zero, New York, Knopf, 1947, page 44.

"Nobel prize for Physics, in 1944. Also has received other honors for his research on the magnetic property of atoms. The physicist assisted in the development of radar and the atomic bomb. Head of the physics department of Columbia University, Rabi directs part of the atomic research of the Brookhaven National Laboratory."—Current Biography, New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1948.

"The new tools at Berkeley, the Argonne, Oak Ridge, Brookhaven, and in many university laboratories will soon be serving men like Lawrence, Fermi, Seaborg, Compton, Rabi, Oppenheimer, Spedding, Sinn [sic], Alvarez, and their brilliant associates, and new discoveries as dazzling as those which have been made will be forthcoming."—Remarks of Lewis L. Strauss, member, United States Atomic Energy Commission, before the University of New Hampshire, October 9, 1948.

Member, General Advisory Committee, United States Atomic Energy Commission.

"The most important developments in the field of nuclear moments are due mainly to the work of I. I. Rabi and his collaborators, performed in the United States since 1933."—Glasstone, S., Sourcebook on Atomic Energy. New York, D. Van Nostrand, 1950, page 341.

Rossi, Bruno (Italy)

"These tests were in themselves marvels of ingenuity and inventiveness. One of them, devised by Dr. Oppenheimer and Dr. Robert Serber, and carried out with special apparatus designed by Prof. Bruno Rossi, of Cornell, made it possible to get an approximation of the forces that would develop inside an atomic bomb at the instant of explosion, without the use of any U–235 or plutonium."—Laurence, W. L. Dawn Over Zero. New York, Knopf, 1947, page 185.

Segre, E. (Italy)

"On March 1, 1941, Drs. Seaborg, Segre, Kennedy, and Lawrence proceeded to bombard about 1 kilogram of uranium with neutrons."—Laurence, W. L. Dawn Over Zero. New York, Knopf, 1947, page 153.

"An Italian by birth and a former colleague of Dr. Fermi, Segre came to Berkeley in 1938 from the University of Palermo, where he directed the physics laboratory. With the cooperation of the Radiation Laboratory, he discovered element 43 and, with Dale Corson and Kenneth MacKenzie, created element 85."—Young Men of the Atom. Newsweek 27: 62–63 (February 25, 1946).

Skinner, H. W. B. (Great Britain)

"Professor Oliphant and his team from Birmingham University were moved to Berkeley to work with Professor Lawrence's group engaged in research on the electromagnetic isotope separation project. They were joined by other physicists from Britain including Professor Massey, of University College, London; Dr. H. W. Skinner, of Bristol University; Dr. Allibone and Dr. Wilkinson who worked partly at Berkeley and partly at the electromagnetic separation plant itself. Dr. Emeleus, of Imperial College, London; Dr. J. P. Baxter, and others were transferred to the eletcromagnetic plant."—Smyth, H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 286.

Slotin, Louis B. (Canada)

"* * * Research associate in biochemistry, to help construct the cyclotron at the University of Chicago. This served as an introduction to the field of nuclear physics. He contributed to a number of papers in radiobiology before joining the atomic-energy project when it was centralized in Chicago in 1942. * * * Slotin went to Oak Ridge to help with pile development there. When the problems of plutonium production were solved, Slotin moved to Los Alamos to assist in the final problem of constructing an atomic bomb.

"It was Slotin who assembled and delivered the first atomic bomb for the Alamogordo test. The receipt which he received when he turned this, the first atomic bomb, over to the Army was one of his most prized possessions. It represented the culmination of the whole effort of the Manhattan district."

He died May 30, 1946, from the effects of radiation produced in an accident involving fissionable materials.—Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists 1: 16 (June 1946).

Smith, Cyril S. (Great Britain)

"In the preparation and the shaping of the active metal employed in the first three atomic bombs which were used in the New Mexico test in 1945, the supervisor of the operations was Cyril S. Smith. His work on this project, as well as his activities in the general field of metallurgical research, led to his appointment, by President Truman in 1946, as a member of one of the key advisory groups for atomic control in the United States, the General Advisory Committee to the Atomic Energy Commission. * * *

"In 1943 he was given the post of associate division leader in charge of metallurgy at the Los Alamos, N. Mex., atom-bomb laboratories. During the 3 years he worked there on atomic research, Smith was in charge of the activities in the metallurgy of uranium, plutonium, and other materials used in atomic production and research. * * * In a published appreciation by a former associate, it is said of Smith that at Los Alamos 'he had few assistants and almost no equipment. But after a very short period he assembled a group which was able to solve the problems and meet the necessary deadlines. The fact that he was able to think like, talk to, and understand the problems of, the physicists, translate their requirements into things that could be done, and get these things done, explains the high regard in which he was held by his associates on the project.'" —Current Biography, New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1948.

Szilard, Leo (Hungary)

"Such towering scientific figures as Niels Bohr of Denmark and Sir James Chadwick of Great Britain, together with dozens of associates from almost all countries except Russia, came to the United States during the war, participated intimately in the Manhattan District project, rendered priceless service, and returned to their native lands when hostilities ended. Equally notable figures from abroad—Enrico Fermi of Italy and Hugarian-born Leo Szilard, for example—shared in our atomic effort and established permanent American residence following the war."—Joint Committee on Atomic Energy, Investigation Into the United States Atomic Energy Commission, Eighty-first Cong., 1st sess., S. Rept. No. 1169, October 13, 1949, page 8.

"It bears repeating that the men who stimulated this country's interest in attempting to use the Hahn-Strassman discovery of the fissionability of unanium were Enrico Fermi, who had won the Nobel prize in physics when he was a professor in his native Italy, and Albert Einstein, Leo Szilard, and Eugene P. Wigner, all of whom were mature scientists before they were American citizens."—Gellborn, W., Security, Loyalty, and Science, Ithaca, N. Y., Cornell University Press, 1950, page 13.

"E. Fermi and Szilard who proposed the use of graphite as a moderator for a chain reaction. The general scheme of using a moderator mixed with the uranium was pretty obvious. A specific manner of using a moderator was first suggested in this country, so far as we can discover, by Fermi and Szilard" (p. 34).

"The announcement of the hypothesis of fission and its experimental confirmation took place in January 1939. * * * There was immediate interest in the possible military use of the large amounts of energy released in fission. * * * The early efforts both at restricting publication and at getting Government support were stimulated largely by a small group of forein-born physicists centering on L. Szilard and including E. Wigner, E. Teller, V. F. Weisskopf, and E. Fermi." (p. 45).—Smyth, H. D., Atomic Energy for Military Purposes, Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945.

"In 1939 at Columbia University his experiments became fundamental to the uranium project, and his foresight was largely responsible for governmental support of the project."—Masters, D., and Way, K., editors, One World or None, New York, N. Y., McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1946, page 61.

"Leo Szilard, internationally known physicist, who was instrumental in getting President Franklin D. Roosevelt interested in the atomic-energy field, is professor of biophysics and professor of social sciences at the University of Chicago. He began his work in the field of nuclear physics in 1934 in London and later continued his work at the University of London. Szilard worked with Enrico Fermi, Nobel-prize physicist, on the early phases of work on chain reaction at Columbia University and at the metallurgical laboratory at the University of Chicago. He was born in Budapest, Hungary, in 1898. Szilard received his doctor of pholosophy from the University of Berlin in 1922 and served on the university's faculty there from 1925 to 1933. He became an American citizen in 1943."—Robinson, G. O., the Oak Ridge Story, Kinsport, Tenn., Southern Publishers, 1950, page 178.

Taylor, Geoffrey (Great Britain)

"Dr. Frisch, from the Liverpool nuclear-physics group, and Dr. Bretscher, from the corresponding Cambridge section, together with some members of their teams, were moved into the great American T. A. research establishment at Los Alamos. * * *

"They were joined at that time or later by a number of other British scientists, including Professor Peierls and Dr. Penny, of Imperial College, London University. Professor Sir Geoffrey Taylor paid several visits to the establishment."—Smyth, H. D., Atomic Energy for Military Purposes, Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 286.

Taylor, Hugh S. (Great Britain)

"The most effective catalyst of this type [for the production of heavy water] was discovered by H. S. Taylor at Princeton University" (p. 169).

"The type of barrier selected for use in the plant was perfected under the supervision of H. S. Taylor" (p. 181).—Smyth, H. D., Atomic Energy for Military Purposes, Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945.

Teller, E. (Hungary)

"For example, Dr. Bethe and Dr. Teller in the area of fundamental and analytical nuclear considerations. The fact that men of their caliber were willing to give their time and found it worth while to give their time * * *."—Dr. Mervin J. Kelley, executive vice president, Bell Laboratories, Inc. (Investigation into the United States atomic energy project. Hearings before the Joint Committee on Atomic Energy, Congress of the United States, 81st Cong., 1st sess., pt. 20, p. 812).

"The announcement of the hypothesis of fission and its experimental confirmation took place in January 1939. * * * There was immediate interest in the possible military use of the large amounts of energy released in fission. * * * The early efforts both at restricting publication and at getting Government support were stimulated largely by a small group of foreign-born physicists centering on L. Szilard and including E. Wigner, E. Teller, V. F. Weisskopf, and E. Fermi."—Smyth, H. D., Atomic Energy for Military Purposes, Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 45.

Chairman, Reactor Safeguard Committee, U. S. A. E. C.

Thornton, Robert L. (Great Britain)

"Thornton, Robert L. 37: The British-born physicist helped to build the University of Michigan cyclotron and directed the construction of the cyclotron at Washington University, St. Louis, where most of the plutonium for the Chicago atomic-bomb project was made. Thornton also carried the load in designing the Berkeley calutron, and the subsequent construction at Oak Ridge, Tenn. Now head physicist in charge of the 184-inch cyclotron at Berkeley, Thornton will also use his skill in designing new atomic-research equipment."—"Young Men of the Atom." Newsweek 27: 62–63. (Feb. 25, 1946.)

Member, Committee of Senior Responsible Reviewers, U. S. Atomic Energy Commission.

Weisskopf, V. F. (Austria)

"The announcement of the hypothesis of fission and its experimental confirmation took place in January 1939 * * *. There was immediate interest in the possible military use of the large amounts of energy released in fission * * *. The early efforts both at restricting publication and at getting Government support were stimulated largely by a small group of foreign-born physicists centering on L. Szilard and including E. Wigner, E. Teller, V. F. Weisskopf, and E. Fermi."—Smyth, H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 45.

Westendorp, W. F. (Netherlands)

"Shortly thereafter, in 1947, H. C. Pollock and W. F. Westendorp of the General Electric Co. designed and built a machine combining the action of both betatron and synchrotron. It produced electrons of 70 Mev energy, although the magnet weighed only 8 tons, as compared with 135 tons of the 100-Mev betatron."—Glasstone, S. Sourcebook on Atomic Energy. New York, N. Y., D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1950, page 328.

Wigner, E. P. (Hungary)

"It bears repeating that the men who stimulated this country's interest in attempting to use the Hahn-Strassman discovery of the fissionability of uranium were Enrico Fermi, who had won the Nobel prize in physics when he was a professor in his native Italy, and Albert Einstein, Leo Szilard, and Eugene P. Wigner, all of whom were mature scientists before they were American citizens."—Gellhorn, W. Security, Loyalty, and Science. Ithaca, N. Y., Cornell University Press, 1950, page 13.

"The announcement of the hypothesis of fission and its experimental confirmation took place in January 1937 * * *. There was immediate interest in the possible military use of the large amounts of energy released in fission * * * The early efforts both at restricting publication and at getting Government support were stimulated largely by a small group of foreign-born physicists centering on L. Szilard and including E. Wigner, E. Teller, V. F. Weisskopf, and E. Fermi."—Smyth, H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press, 1945, page 45.

"The theory of the absorption of neutons at, and in the vicinity of, the resonance peaks was worked out by G. Breit and E. P. Wigner in the United States in 1936, and the resulting Breit-Wigner formula, as it is called, has formed the basis of the interpretation of neutron cross sections."—Glasstone, S. Sourcebook on Atomic Energy. New York, D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1950, page 313.

Wilkinson, V. J. R. (Great Britain)

"Professor Oliphant and his team from Birmingham University were moved to Berkeley to work with Professor Lawrence's group engaged in research on the electromagnetic isotope separation project. They were joined by other physicists from Britain including Professor Massey of University College, London, Dr. H. W. Skinner of Bristol University, Dr. Allibone and Dr. V. J. R. Wilkinson who worked partly at Berkeley and partly at the Electro-Magnetic Separation Plant itself. Dr. Emeleus of Imperial College, London, Dr. J. P. Baxter, and others were transferred to the electro magnetic plant."—Smyth H. D. Atomic Energy for Military Purposes. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University Press. 1945, page 286.

Yukawa, Hideki (Japan)

"On November 3, 1949, the Royal Swedish Academy of Science announced that the 1949 Nobel prize for physics had been awarded to Dr. Hideki Yukawa, Japanese physicist who in 1950 is at Columbia University on leave from his teaching post at Kyoto University of Japan. Yukawa first came to the attention of the world of physics in 1935 when, after a year of investigation, he published a series of equations forecasting the existence of a fourth basic particle of subatomic matter, the meson (in addition to the proton, the electron, and the neutron). In October 1948, Dr. J. Robert Oppenheimer, director of the Institute for Advanced Studies at Princeton, N. J., invited Yukawa to the United States for a period of work with the group of nuclear physicists at the institute * * *

"Upon Yukawa's departure from Princeton, Dr. Oppenheimer said: 'Dr. Yukawa's anticipation of the meson is one of the few really fructifying ideas in the last decades * * * He was deeply loved by all his colleagues in his year here, both as a scientist and a man.' * * *

"According to the official citation of the Royal Swedish Academy of Science on November 3, 1949, the Japanese physicist was given the Nobel Prize 'for his prediction of the existence of the meson (an elusive mass, heavier than the electron, which theoretically glues the atomic nucleus together), based upon his theory of nuclear forces.' "—Current Biography. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1950.

Zinn, W. H. (Canada)

"The new tools at Berkeley, the Argonne, Oak Ridge, Brookhaven, and in many university laboratories will soon be serving men like Lawrence, Fermi, Seaborg, Compton, Rabi, Oppenheimer, Sinn [sic], Alvarez, and their brilliant associates, and new discoveries as dazzling as those which have been made will be forthcoming."—Remarks of Lewis L. Strauss, member, United State Atomic Energy Commission before the University of New Hampshire, October 9, 1948.

"The Argonne director is Dr. Walter H. Zinn, the Nation's leading expert in this field; and he personally has been the principal proponent of the fast reactor—often called the Zinn reactor on that account."—Joint Committee on Atomic Energy. Investigation into the United States Atomic Energy Commission. Eighty-first Congress, first session. Senate Report No. 1169, October 13, 1949, page 32.

"The CHAIRMAN (Senator McMahon). Gentlemen, we have with us this morning Dr. W. H. Zinn, who is Director of the Argonne National Laboratory. Dr. Zinn is the gentleman who was in charge of the building of the first reactor pile in this country, and, of course, that was the first in the world; and Dr. Zinn as I have said, is now in charge of the Argonne National Laboratory."—Senator Brien McMahon. (Hearing before the Joint Committee on Atomic Energy, 81st Cong., 1st sess. On investigation into the United States Atomic Energy project, pt. 9, p. 360.)

"Director of the Argonne National Laboratory, was one of the original members of the Fermi group to work on chain reactors. Zinn was born in Kitchener, Ontario, Canada, in 1906. He received his bachelor's and master's degrees from Columbia University, New York, N. Y. He taught at Columbia, and City College, New York, before coming to Chicago with the Metallurgical Laboratory. With Leo Szilard he performed early experiments showing that neutrons are emitted in the fission process; this work became fundamental in studies on atomic energy.

Zinn was in charge of a group which constructed the first chain reacting pile and later supervised the design and construction of the first pile using heavy water as the moderator."—Robinson, G. O. The Oak Ridge Story. Kingsport, Tenn., Southern Publishers, 1950, page 178.

INFORMATION PROVIDED BY UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE CONCERNING AGRICULTURE: YESTERDAY, TODAY, AND TOMORROW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
Washington 25, D. C., December 1, 1952.

Mr. HARRY N. ROSENFIELD,
Executive Director, President's Commission on Immigration and Naturalization,
Washington 25, D. C.

DEAR MR. ROSENFIELD: The special study, Agriculture: Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow, prepared by Mr. Clarence Herdt of the Department, who is now on loan to the Commission, has been reviewed by several of our people, as you requested. We consider the study appropriate for inclusion among the special studies provided the Commission by various Federal agencies.

Sincerely yours,

HERBERT J. WATERS,
Assistant to the Under Secretary of Agriculture.

AGRICULTURE YESTERDAY, TODAY, AND TOMORROW

Since any study of immigration involves factors of increasing population, it is quite proper that consideration be given to the ability of the receiving country to produce commodities required by its gross population which will result from the population increase plus persons added as a result of immigration.

An examination of the capacity of American agriculture to produce and keep producing the food and fiber required by our growing population as well as our expanding industrial plant should provide information which is useful in determining whether we possess the production potential to supply the long-range requirements that likely will be needed.

In order to place the situation with respect to agriculture in the United States in its proper perspective, it seems desirable to give some attention to where we now are and where we came from. By projecting the ascertainable trends of the past, we can on the basis of certain assumptions arrive at a reasonable prediction of our future position. Several studies, covering this subject, have recently been made. The land-grant colleges cooperating with the United States Department of Agriculture produced a report published as Agriculture Information Bulletin No. 88 by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics dated June 1952. The United States Department of Agriculture during November 1952 released a report on United States production prepared in response to a resolution passed at the sixth session of the conference of the FAO of the United Nations seeking information on the productive capacity of member nations. The President's Materials Policy Commission in its 1952 report, Resources for Freedom, contains several chapters on agriculture. The Subcommittee on Labor and Labor-Management Relations of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, United States Senate, Eighty-second Congress, issued a staff report title "Manpower, Chemistry, and Agriculture" also contains considerable material dealing with attainable technological advancement.

We have drawn freely upon these Government studies as well as information presented to the Commissioners in the hearings which they held.

The assurance of an adequate food supply to insure a well-fed nation has for the last 20 years been recognized as a proper concern of public policy. The Government as a result of the great depression and two world wars has played a more active role in the development of agricultural programs. As expressed by the USDA in its report to the FAO.

"The current objectives of agricultural policy include provisions for:

"1. Adequate supplies of food and fiber to provide our domestic population with the kinds and amounts needed for progressively improved levels of nutrition and better living standards and to meet the probable industrial and export demand including provisions for commitments entered into in defense of the free world.

"2. Prices and returns to producers at levels comparable to those in other fields of endeavor who make a commensurate contribution to the general welfare.

"3. Progressive improvement in efficiency of both production and distribution for the benefit of producers and consumers.

"4. Maintenance and improvement of our physical resources on a sustained and gradually increasing yield basis.

"5. Parity of facilities and services between farm and nonfarm groups."

To implement these policies, the United States Department of Agriculture develops each year production guides for the immediate year ahead. These goals are arrived at after an appraisal of domestic requirements including desirable levels of reserves, and export demand and of production possibilities within the United States. Through the County and State committees of the Production and Marketing Administration of the United States Department of Agriculture, the Nation's farmers are apprised of these goals and efforts are directed toward their realization.

Generally farm output is geared to the individual decisions and actions of the Nation's five-million-odd farmers.

The manner in which they use the farm land, the rate at which they accept and put into practice the finding of research and technological improvement, the increased use of mechanical power, machines, fertilizer, pesticides, and improved seed will have considerable bearing on the total output achieved.

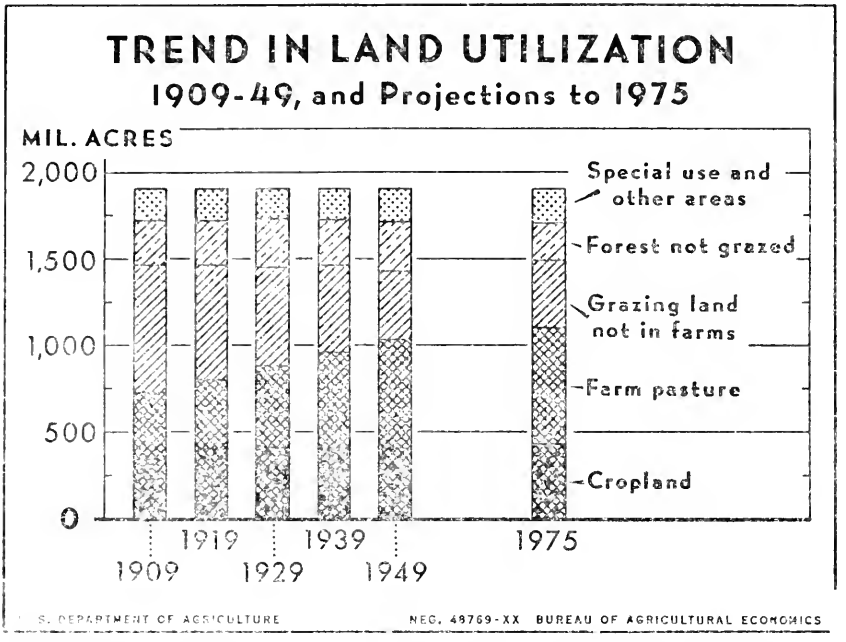
At this point it seems desirable to examine the plant available for agricultural production in the United States as well as the material and manpower resources which are utilized in the production of the output from our farms. We shall look back several decades, state our position in 1950 and set forth the conclusions reached in the studies previously mentioned as they relate to the probable food requirement and achievable output by 1975.

The essential base for agricultural production is land. In the United States, our total land area is 1,903 million acres of which 1,159 million acres were in farms during 1950. The major uses of this land base by farmers since 1910 as estimated by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics from United States Bureau of the Census and other data are as follows:

	1910	1920	1930	1940	1945	1950
Total land in farms (million acres)	879	953	987	1,031	1,142	1,159
Cropland	347	402	413	399	403	409
Plowable pasture	95	105	109	111	109	485
Pasture not plowable	189	223	270	350	420	
Pastured forest and woodland	98	77	85	100	95	135
Forest and woodland, not pastured	93	91	65	57	71	85
Farmsteads, roads, wasteland, and other nonproductive land	57	58	45	44	44	45
Pasture and grazing land not in farms	600	502	437	382	292	280

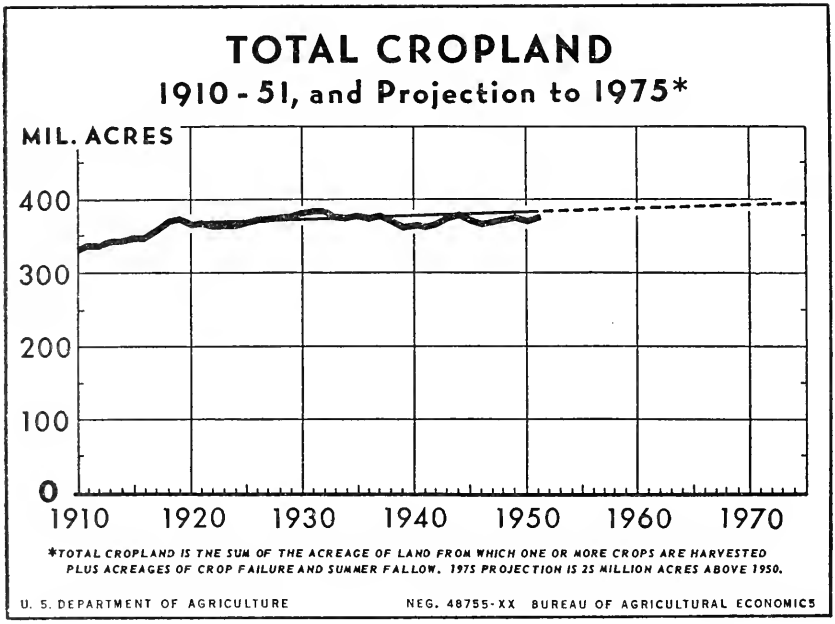
The trend in land utilization is also indicated graphically on the attached chart of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. In addition, this chart contains a projection of the possible situation by 1975. This projection according to BAE is based on data in the President's Water Resources Commission Report of 1950 (vol. 1, pp. 159–166). The net projected increase in cropland is 25 million acres above the 1949–50 figures. In addition, it is estimated that 25 million acres of permanent pasture will be transfered to rotation from pasture and that the establishment of 50 million acres of new improved pasture is possible. They go on further to state, "The above estimates of possible development over the next 20 to 25 years do not represent the total potential development that is possible if economic and other conditions were compelling enough to warrant such development. Estimates based on soil and land use capability surveys indicate, for example, that 85 million acres of presently undeveloped lands are suitable for use as cropland if improved by drainage, irrigation, clearing, and flood protection. Additional pasture improvement on some 100 million acres of present pasture land also would be desirable and could be done if conditions warranted."

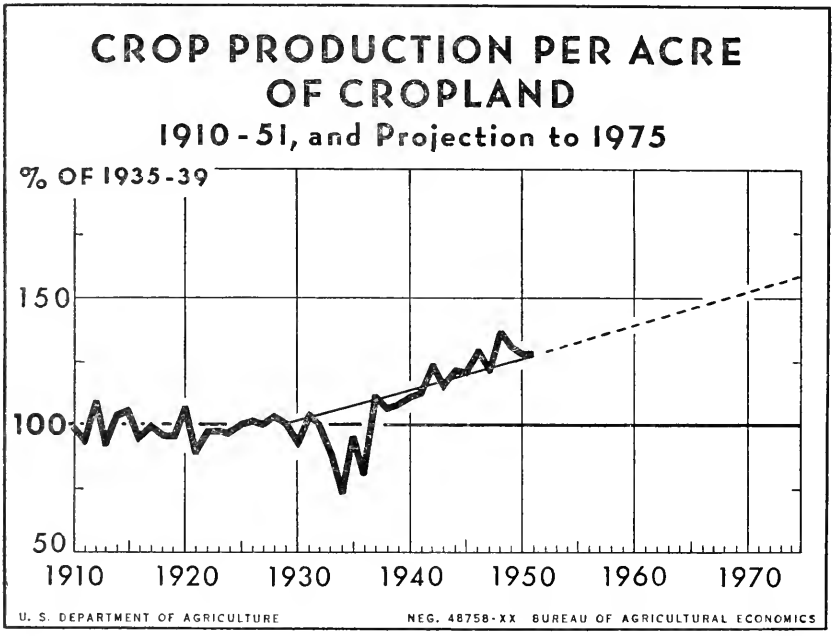
That there is considerable cushion in quantity of land which could be shifted to cropland under the pressure of need is indicated by the discussion of land use contained in vol. 5, pages 70–72 of the President's Materials Policy Commission.



"On the other hand, there are about 285 million acres now in grass and woodland that could be planted to crops. Most of these 285 million acres of grass and woodland would indeed be planted to crops if they were in Western Europe." They go on to point out, however, that this estimate is the full potential based upon the physical capability of the land and that the Soil Conservation Service does not recommend that all of the land physically suitable for cultivation should be used for cultivated crops since a balanced enterprise on most existing farms requires use of some of the lands referred to above for pasture and woodland. They further qualify this estimate by pointing out that approximately 75 million acres of the 285 million should be cultivated only occasionally and its conversion to cropland is not recommended by the Soil Conservation Service. They conclude that very little of this conversion to more intensive use will occur by 1975.

The United States Department of Agriculture in the report to the Food and Agriculture Organization points out the two significant things to note about the changes in land use since 1909 are the rather steady shift in the pasture area from grazing land not in farms to farm pasture and the relative consistency in the total acreage in cropland. Approximately 365 to 385 million acres of the total cropland area were planted and fallowed annually from 1910 to 1950. The acreage cultivated each year thus ranged from 92 to 95 percent of the area readily available for cultivation * * * the remainder being in soil-improvement crops and in land temporarily idle. They suggest further that the extension of the trend of the past few years in the increase of cropland area to 1975 would mean an increase of only slightly over 6 percent above the present acreage cropped and consequently any substantial required addition in production must come primarily from an increase in yield and improvement in efficiency with which labor and other factors of production are used. What are the possibilities for increasing crop yields, for improving the efficiency of livestock production, and for increasing the efficiency with which labor is used? Over-all crop yields per acre were relatively constant from 1910 through 1936 except for the years 1934 and 1936. Expressed as a percentage of the 1935–39 average to which the Department of Agriculture has assigned an index of 100 the yearly index fluctuated within a 10-point range from about 96 to 106. Beginning with 1937, the index shows a steady rise reaching a high of 137 attained in 1948 with a subsequent subsidence to 128 in 1950. This movement is plotted on the attached chart prepared by the BAE and is also projected to 1975 at which time it indicates an index of about 161.


TOTAL CROPLAND
1910 - 51, and Projection to 1975*
MIL. ACRES
400
300
200
100
0
1910
1920
1930
1940
1950
1960
1970
*TOTAL CROPLAND IS THE SUM OF THE ACREAGE OF LAND FROM WHICH ONE OR MORE CROPS ARE HARVESTED PLUS ACREAGES OF CROP FAILURE AND SUMMER FALLOW. 1975 PROJECTION IS 25 MILLION ACRES ABOVE 1950.
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. 48755-XX BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS


CROP PRODUCTION PER ACRE OF CROPLAND
1910 - 51, and Projection to 1975
% OF 1935-39
150
100
50
1910
1920
1930
1940
1950
1960
1970
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
NEG. 48758-XX BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS

In commenting on this chart, the USDA in its FAO report states "With average weather and continued strong demand for farm products an upward trend in the production of crops per acre is likely to continue. If the trend in production of crops per acre under way during the past 15 years were projected into the future, it would mean an increase in crop yields of approximately 25 percent over the next 25 years. The possibility of attaining such an increase over this period is supported by the results of a recent study of productive capacity of agriculture in the United States. Productive Capacity Committees set up in each State estimated that, under the stated assumptions of the study, farmers could adopt improved practices which would raise crop yields by 17 percent between 1950 and 1955. High-level economic activity and favorable cost-price relationships in agriculture were assumed, and only presently known improved practices were considered in making these estimates of attainable yields." They then point out that these increased yields will not occur automatically. "However, to achieve the increase projected in the chart or any other increase that market demand may dictate, will require considerable effort. It will be noted, for example, that it was only during the last 15 of the 40 years shown on the chart that yields have shown an upward trend. Prior to that time they were practically stationary. It should also be observed that the upward trend took place during a period of favorable weather and with demand and prices at relatively profitable levels. Even if these relatively favorable conditions were to continue, it will take considerable effort just to maintain the high yields shown, to say nothing of increasing them still more. To attain the large increase in yields over the past 15 years, United States farmers 'cashed in' on results of fundamental research that had been accumulating over a long period. To assume a continuation of this upward trend, it is imperative that further emphasis be given to such research since it is so basic to the development of new techniques for bringing about expansion of production. It also must be recognized that research usually bears fruit quite slowly, sometimes over a period as long as 10, 15, or 25 years. This emphasizes the importance of adding continuously to our reservoir of technological knowledge which can be drawn upon in years ahead. It also emphasizes the importance of continued and even increased emphasis upon education and extension programs to get such research results into farm use."

The President's Materials Policy Commission also addressed itself to this problem of projecting increased yield per acre to 1975 and in considering the theoretically possible as distinct from the probable achievable, came up with the striking conclusion that production from present acreage might be increased 200 percent by 1975 if every farmer used fertilizer up to the economic limit and employed every other known good farming practice (p. 46, vol. 1). They also observe "The gains from fertilizer use are so striking, however, and call for so litt'e additional labor, that fertilizer may well play a larger role in attaining higher yields in the future than in the past. If the rate of use were to increase 10 percent each year to 1975, as it has in more recent years, fertilizer alone would boost yields by 75 percent, and this by no means is the limit. But such sustained increases in rates of application are not to be expected although a few of the more progressive farmers may go well beyond a doubling of current use" (p. 72, vol. 5). In addition to the increases which are being achieved in crop yields, farmers in the United States are getting more and more production per unit of livestock. Greater milk production per cow and more eggs per hen have been important factors in the long-time increase in output of dairy and poultry products. Productivity of other farm animals also has increased. Livestock production per breeding unit has risen more than 50 percent since 1920. An increase of nearly one-fourth has occurred since 1935–39.

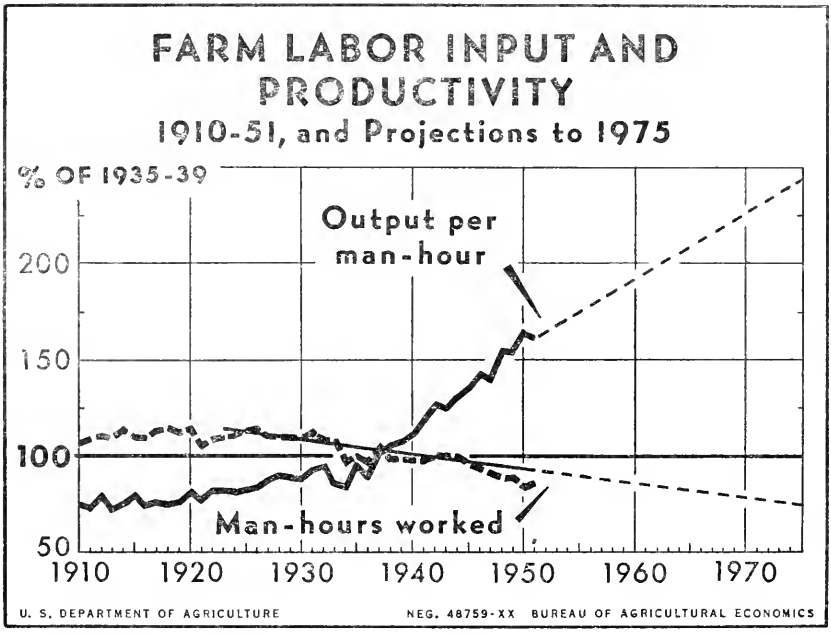
Heavier feeding of better balanced rations, improved strains of livestock increased sanitation and disease control, reduced death losses, better care, and other improved practices have contributed to the upward trends in production per breeding unit. BAE indicates this upward trend, which by 1975 will be about 17 percent above 1950 and 40 percent above the 1935–39 average is expected to continue if the demand for livestock production continues strong.

Farm labor input has shown a steady decline since after the First World War. Millions of man-hours used annally have decreased from the average of 23,278 in the years 1925–29 to 17,354 in 1950. A corresponding reduction in the number of persons who worked on farms has occurred. BAE figures on annual

average employment show a decline of almost 2 million workers in the 40 years from 1910 to 1950. A further decline of about 1¼ million workers can be expected by 1975.

What this decline in number of workers means in relation to the total population which must be fed is strikingly summarized in a publication, "To Keep Your Plate Full," released by the Production and Marketing Administration during September 1952. "In the 1910–14 period, 1 farm worker supplied food and fiber for 8 persons, including himself. Now he supplies 15 persons. By 1975 each worker on farms must supply 21 persons including himself. This decline in number of workers on farms is not an alarming trend—so long as the farmer is in a cash position to replace lost farm manpower with labor from a chemical plant, a machine factory, a petroleum field, a research laboratory, electric power, and so on."

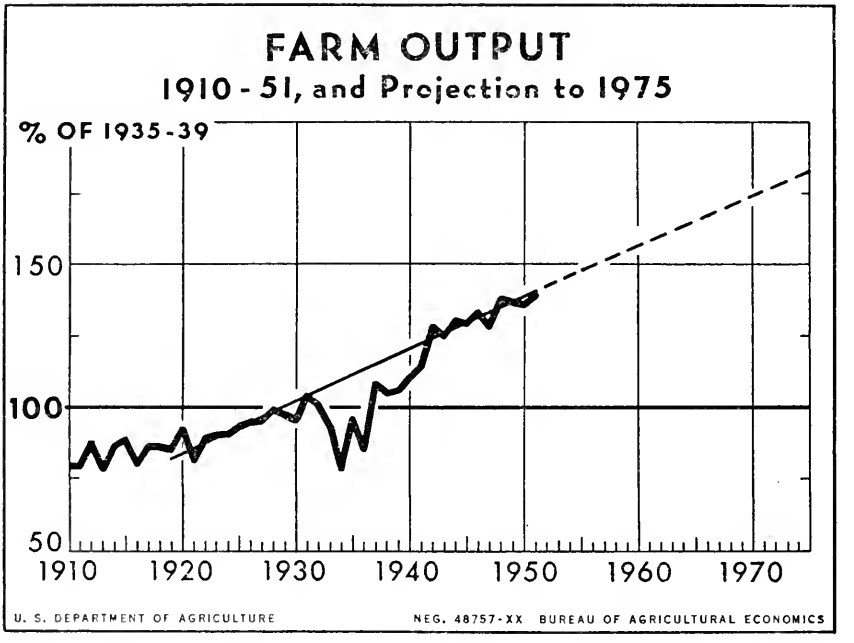
Coincident with the decline in number of farm workers is a rapid rise in farm output per man-hour. Using an index of 100 for the 1935–39 period BAE statistics indicate an index of 74 for 1910, 81 for 1920, 87 for 1930, 112 for 1940, and 164 for 1950. Their projection of this trend shows a rise to approximately 250 in the index by 1975. This trend is illustrated on the attached chart. In commenting upon the situation, they state, "Progress in mechanization and higher



yields of crops and livestock have been the chief factors responsible for the advance in man-hour productivity. These forces are expected to continue to push up farm output per man-hour during the next 25 years. The projected man-hour inputs in agriculture for 1975 would be 25 percent less than in 1935–39 and 10 percent under the 1950 man-hour requirements. This, together with a projected rise of about 35 percent in output between 1950 and 1975, would mean about a 50-percent increase in man-hour productivity. The projected output per man-hour for 1975 would be nearly 2½ times as great as the average for 1935–39."

In adding up and summarizing the results of the projections to 1975 for land, land use, increased crop yields, increased livestock production per breeding unit, and increased farm labor efficiency, USDA in its report for FAO reduced all of these factors to reflect total volume of farm output. This output was plotted on a chart which is attached. In their comments on total output they have this to say:

"The long-time upward trend in farm output in the United States was interrupted seriously by the droughts and depression of the 1930's, but was greatly accelerated during and following World War II when demand for farm products reached record levels. It is indicated that about half of the increase in output between the two World Wars resulted directly from progress in farm mechanization. Nearly 50 million acres of cropland were released from production of feed for horses and mules to production of other crops as mechanical power rapidly replaced animal power on farms. An additional 20 million acres was released from 1940 to 1950. In the latter period, however, an increase in crop production per acre was the chief factor in the sharp rise in farm output.



"Future additions to the volume of farm output are likely to come primarily from increases in crop yields. Further decrease in numbers of horses and mules will likely release not more than 10 to 15 million acres of cropland. And, as indicated previously, total acreage of land used for crops is not expected to increase more than 5 or 6 percent in the next quarter century.

"The 1975 projections for cropland and crop production per acre, if attained, would make possible a continuation of the long-time trend in volume of farm output. Production of feed crops and pasture quite likely would rise sufficiently to support an output of food livestock one-third greater than in 1950. This projected level of livestock production would result from a 17-percent increase in production per breeding unit and a 14-percent step-up in number of breeding units. The number of animal units of breeding livestock in 1975 would be about the same as the record number on farms in 1943 and 1944.

"The projected output index of around 180 for 1975 would be about 35 percent above the 1947–49 average.

"Thus, it seems reasonable to conclude that over the next quarter century farm production in the United States can be substantially increased. This assumes, of course, that the economic incentives to farmers to adopt improved production practices will exist. But economic incentive alone will not insure meeting the needs for food and fiber. As noted previously, intensive research and educational efforts will be required. Special efforts also will need to be devoted to maintenance of soil resources so that higher crop yields can be sustained." Ade-

quate credit, fertilizer, and other chemicals essential to production as well as increasing supplies of machinery, equipment, and electric power will also need to be available to farmers.

The President's Materials Policy Commission prepared two estimates of probable over-all output of United States agriculture by 1975. One, which they call their A estimate, results in a projected total increase of 86 percent over 1950, and the other, their B estimate, indicates a 33-percent increase for the same period. The A projection is based upon the assumption "that all commercial agriculture is organized and managed so as to make full use of all available technology where such use would add more to farm receipts than to expenses." In defining their use of the term "available technology," they state, "It means technology which is now fully available, or which, it is predicted with some assurance, will be available to farmers for ready application to their farms in 1975. Most of the technological practices taken into account in these projections of yields are already well beyond the experimental stage. These practices include a much greater use of fertilizers with closer and better spacing of plants, breeding for larger yields and faster growth in both plants and animals * * * and accompanying these, a large amount of pasture and other land improvement. These projections do not take into account the more revolutionary types of technological change that are discussed often these days."

"Although agriculture output could be increased by the amounts indicated in the A estimate, no one expects adoption of technology at these rates. In any production field, there is always the natural reluctance to put time and money into practices which have been tried out only under controlled conditions. Finally, full adoption assumes that the necessary materials, equipment, and capital are available to all farmers. This is seldom if ever the case. Thus, the B estimate is based on a projection of yield likely to come from such application of available techniques as can reasonably be expected on the basis of past experience."

Thus we have several estimates of probable increases in agricultural output over the next 2½ decades as well as some indications of agriculture's capacity to produce over a shorter period of 5 years from 1950. The land grant college-BAE study of possible developments in the period 1950–55 indicates the attainment of output 20 percent greater than 1950 by 1955, if necessary. USDA's report to FAO indicates a projected output about 35 percent over the 1947–49 average while the President's Materials Policy Commission predicts an attainable 33 percent increase over 1950 with a technically possible increase of 85 percent.

With the exception of the technically possible increase of 85 percent, all the above projections were made, based upon the assumption that only presently know and proved practices would be adopted by farmers and the rate of acceptance of these practices would not vary greatly from the rate which has occurred in the past 10 or 15 years. None of the predictions gives consideration to the further developments in the more revolutionary types of technical and scientific discoveries which may become economically feasible within the next few decades. These, to mention a few, are artificially induced rain—the distillation of potable water from the sea—the continued discovery of chemicals to control weed growth and insects. In discussing this aspect of tremendous strides which can conceivably occur, Dr. Francis Weiss in the report "Manpower, Chemistry, and Agriculture," which he prepared for the Subcommittee on Labor and Labor Management Relations, Eighty-second Congress, first session, has this to say:

"One such development might well be hydroponics or soilless agriculture, a method of growing plants in water to which chemicals are added, rather than in soil. This growing of crops without soil with the aid of proper plant-nutrient formulas will in some cases increase the yield and improve the quality of crops and in all instances keep away soil-borne diseases. Tomatoes, beans, cucumbers, any many other plants have been grown already with success on a commercial basis, and it is only a question of time when large 'food factories' will be economically feasible."

"Another important development by which man could make himself partially independent from the vagaries of nature in food production will be the commercial production of proteins, fats, and vitamins by methods of industrial fermentation. Food and fooder yeast are already produced on a large scale for the increase of

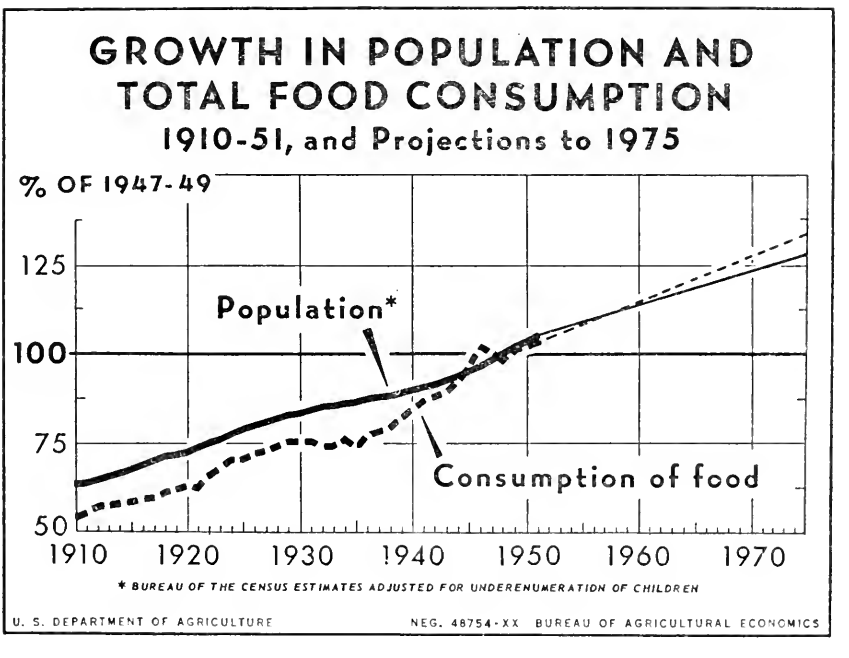
our protein and vitamin supply, and fat will be soon available through the fermentation of the fungus Oidium lactis. To what extent these harnessing of microbiological processes for food production will change agricultural employment cannot be predicted at this moment, though it is fair to say that the industrial manufacture of fat and protein from carbohydrates will tend to decrease the labor required for farm work."

"And yet we are but at the threshold of another discovery of tremendous importance which may well be able to change not only agricultural practices but the entire way of life. This discovery is the solution of the enigma of photosynthesis by which the green plants built their vegetable matter, the basis of all vegetable and plant life on this planet, from water and carbon dioxide. This synthesis is done with the help of the plant pigment chlorophyll, which has been already isolated and the chemical composition of which has been determined. We also know by now to a certain degree how chlorophyll acts, but have not yet been able to reproduce its action outside the plant cell. Here again it is only a matter of time till we will be capable to imitate the most basic physiological process, producing organic substances in factories just as plants do it in their cells."

What does all this mean in terms of numbers of persons who could be fed and supplied with nonfood agricultural products at the several output levels projected to 1975.

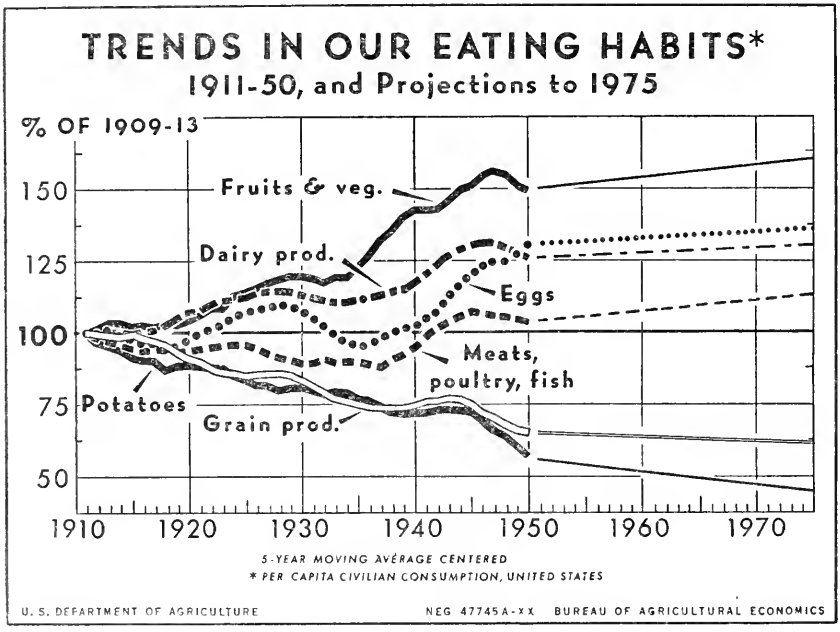
The answer to this question depends upon the assumptions which are made concerning the disposable income available to the future population and a prediction of their probable consumption habits. That different conclusions are possible is indicated by those reached in the studies previously mentioned.

USDA in the report to FAO states that the 35 percent projected increase in output over the 1947–49 average would be sufficient to take care of the demands of a 1975 population of 190 million. Stated another way, the results of their projections of past trends to 1975 indicate a population increase of 28.8 percent over the 1947–49 average of 147.5 million persons, which population will consume agricultural products at a rate somewhat in excess of 6 percent over their consumption habits during the 1947–49 period. The President's Materials Policy Com-



mission on the other hand, using 1950 as their base period and a somewhat different estimate of per capita disposable income as well as total expected population in 1975, concludes that a 28-percent increase in population over 1950 or 193.4 million persons will consume at a per capita rate 10.8 percent over the 1950 rate of consumption. Thus, their projected total consumption by 1975 is somewhat in excess of their B estimate of 33-percent increase in production.

The growth in population, total food consumption, and changes in our eating habits have been charted by BAE for the years from 1910 to 1950 and projected to 1975. These charts are attached. In addition, the BAE has prepared the following tabulation of the approximate retail weight equivalent of food consumed per capita from 1909 through 1951.



Approximate consumption of food per capita, retail-weight equivalent, by major food groups; total in pounds and in comparison with 1935-39 average [1] [10]

Year	Dairy products, excluding butter [2]	Eggs [3]	Meats, poultry, and fish [4]	Fats and oils, including fat cuts and butter [5]	Dry beans and peas, nuts, soya products [6]	Potatoes and sweetpotatoes [7]	Citrus fruit and tomatoes [7]	Leafy green and yellow vegetables [7]	Other vegetables and fruit [7]	Grain products	Sugars and sirups [8]	Coffee, tea, and cocoa [9]	Total		National per capita personal income	
													Retail weight-equivalent	Index 1935-39 = 100 [10]	Index, actual dollars 1935-39 = 100	Per capita income index divided by Consumer Price Index 1935-39 = 100
	Pounds	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*			
1909	388	35	161	59	10	201	44	76	209	296	81	10	1,576	104	59.4	95.3
1910	367	37	151	59	10	206	44	73	204	291	86	10	1,544	102	61.8	93.8
1911	355	40	159	60	10	168	44	69	216	286	88	9	1,504	99	61.8	90.9
1912	398	37	153	57	10	191	46	75	228	284	86	11	1,576	104	65.2	94.8
1913	388	36	150	58	10	191	45	72	201	281	92	10	1,540	101	67.3	95.2
1914	371	36	148	61	10	171	52	72	222	285	90	10	1,528	101	65.8	91.6
1915	369	38	143	61	10	192	51	75	222	275	87	11	1,533	101	69.2	95.4
1916	366	36	146	61	9	154	48	73	203	281	87	12	1,476	97	80.3	103.1
1917	376	34	143	56	12	168	50	76	202	280	88	11	1,499	99	95.1	103.8
1918	401	34	148	60	12	185	48	83	202	253	89	13	1,531	101	106.2	98.8
1919	380	36	148	61	10	169	52	76	202	268	101	13	1,519	100	120.4	97.3
1920	389	36	145	57	12	162	52	88	224	253	101	13	1,532	101	125.1	87.3
1921	388	36	141	57	19	168	55	73	185	240	100	13	1,465	97	97.7	76.5
1922	385	38	146	62	10	170	51	81	225	246	118	13	1,545	102	103.4	86.4
1923	373	39	153	66	10	181	60	77	209	241	105	14	1,528	101	118.0	96.8
1924	381	39	153	65	13	164	63	84	218	237	115	13	1,515	102	116.6	95.1
1925	381	38	148	65	13	160	59	81	210	232	118	12	1,517	100	121.6	97.0
1926	381	41	146	65	13	141	59	83	237	235	118	11	1,533	101	124.6	98.6
1927	380	41	145	65	14	156	60	89	206	235	118	13	1,522	100	123.6	99.7
1928	382	41	141	67	14	161	56	84	227	240	120	13	1,549	102	125.3	102.2
1929	387	40	140	67	14	165	68	92	217	231	112	14	1,550	102	131.2	107.1
1930	385	40	139	67	16	144	60	88	216	230	124	13	1,522	100	116.4	97.5
1931	382	40	137	66	14	150	69	92	231	225	114	14	1,534	101	98.1	90.2
1932	385	38	137	66	14	156	66	92	204	215	109	13	1,495	98	74.8	76.1
1933	385	36	142	66	13	151	67	86	198	209	110	11	1,477	97	69.8	75.5
1934	375	35	149	66	15	152	68	93	198	205	109	13	1,478	97	79.2	82.8
1935	380	34	129	60	14	158	77	96	222	203	110	15	1,498	99	88.5	90.2
1936	385	35	140	64	16	142	78	91	214	207	112	16	1,500	99	100.4	101.3
1937	386	37	136	61	15	138	80	98	231	202	109	15	1,514	100	108.0	105.2
1938	386	37	135	65	17	141	85	107	224	203	108	16	1,527	101	98.9	98.1
1939	391	38	142	68	16	132	98	101	234	200	113	17	1,553	102	104.2	104.8
1940	391	38	149	70	16	138	94	104	231	198	107	17	1,556	103	111.5	111.3
1941	401	38	154	70	16	139	99	104	238	199	116	18	1,592	105	134.4	127.8
1942	419	38	153	66	19	140	101	119	228	200	107	15	1,605	106	171.3	147.0
1943	448	42	164	67	18	145	103	116	206	208	99	14	1,630	107	206.8	167.3
1944	458	42	168	66	16	140	115	122	225	191	108	16	1,667	110	225.7	179.8

See footnotes at end of table.

Approximate consumption of food per capita, retail-weight equivalent, by major food groups; total in pounds and in comparison with 1935–39 average [1] [10]

Year	Dairy products, excluding butter [2]	Eggs [3]	Meats, poultry, and fish [4]	Fats and oils, including fat cuts and butter [5]	Dry beans and peas, nuts, soya products [6]	Potatoes and sweetpotatoes [7]	Citrus fruit and tomatoes [7]	Leafy green and yellow vegetables [7]	Other vegetables and fruit [7]	Grain products	Sugars and sirups [8]	Coffee, tea, and cocoa [9]	Total		National per capita personal income	
													Retail weight-equivalent	Index 1935–39 = 100 [10]	Index, actual dollars 1935–39 = 100	Per capita income index divided by Consumer Price Index 1935–39 = 100
	Pounds	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*	*Pounds*			
1945	471	48	166	60	17	138	118	133	237	200	92	17	1,697	112	231.6	180.4
1946	470	45	168	61	18	138	114	129	253	193	92	20	1,704	112	236.5	169.8
1947	444	46	168	65	14	132	113	113	239	174	110	18	1,636	108	249.1	156.5
1948	432	47	158	65	15	118	106	117	237	171	106	19	1,591	105	268.8	157.0
1949	429	46	159	65	16	116	98	111	235	173	106	19	1,573	104	259.5	153.5
1950	431	47	161	68	17	111	97	116	228	167	108	17	1,568	103	280.3	163.1
1951	437	50	156	65	17	105	106	112	234	167	108	17	1,575	104	309.5	166.8

[1] See text Miscellaneous Publication No. 691, U. S. Department of Agriculture, for description of methods used and indications of limitations of data. Civilian consumption only, 1941–51.

[2] Sum of approximate retail weights of individual products.

[3] Allows for breakage from farm to retail.

[4] Excludes bacon and other fat pork cuts. Includes edible offal, game, and small quantity of noncommercial fish.

[5] Includes butter. Actual weight except for "other edible fats and oils."

[6] Nuts on a shelled basis.

[7] Including fresh and processed items and produce of town and city gardens.

[8] Excluding use in condensed milk, processed fruits and vegetables.

[9] Includes coffee on roasted basis, and chocolate liquor equivalent of cocoa and chocolate products.

[10] Average for 1935–39 is approximately 1,518 pounds.

A study of this table indicates the retail weight equivalent per capita food consumption during this 42-year period has varied from a low of 1,465 pounds during 1921 to a high of 1704 pounds during 1946. On the basis of an index constructed at 100 for the years 1935–39 the index figures for the two extremes cited above are 97 and 112 respectively. Thus, the widest fluctuation during this period is within a 15.4 percent range.

Further examination of this table leads one to conclude that while there is marked change in the kinds of food consumed, the total annual per capita food consumption fluctuates very narrowly while per capita income fluctuates considerably more.

During the period 1909–49 the food energy available for consumption per capita, per day varied between a low of 3,200 calories in 1935 and a high of 3,510 calories in 1928 with the 1949 figure standing at 3,250. While our eating habits have changed and we consume less grain products and potatoes, we are as a group eating more dairy products, eggs, fruits, and vegetables with slightly more meat. Our average level of consumption per capita is well above minimum food requirements by any accepted dietary standard.

A conservative view leads us to conclude that agricultural output will not be outstripped by our growing population and our diet will continue to be adequate both as to food energy and variety.

INDEXES

PERSONS HEARD OR WHO SUBMITTED STATEMENTS

(In the following list, parentheses are used to indicate that the person did not represent before the Commission the organizations so designated)

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9:40 A. M., TUESDAY, SEPTEMBER 30, 1952, AT NEW YORK, N. Y.

Second Session

1:45 P. M., TUESDAY, SEPTEMBER 30, 1952, AT NEW YORK, N. Y.

THIRD SESSION

9:30 A. M., WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 1, 1952, AT NEW YORK, N. Y.

FOURTH SESSION

1:30 P. M., WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 1, 1952, AT NEW YORK, N. Y.

STATEMENTS SUBMITTED BY OTHER PERSONS AND ORGANIZATIONS IN THE NEW YORK AREA

FIFTH SESSION

9:30 A. M., THURSDAY, OCTOBER 2, 1952, AT BOSTON, MASS.

SIXTH SESSION

1:30 P. M., THURSDAY, OCTOBER 2, 1952, AT BOSTON, MASS.

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9:30 A. M., MONDAY, OCTOBER 6, 1952, AT CLEVELAND, OHIO

EIGHTH SESSION

1:30 P. M., MONDAY, OCTOBER 6, 1952, AT CLEVELAND, OHIO

STATEMENTS SUBMITTED BY OTHER PERSONS AND ORGANIZATIONS IN THE CLEVELAND AREA

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THIRTEENTH SESSION

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1 : 30 P. M. THURSDAY, OCTOBER 9, 1952, AT CHICAGO, ILL.

STATEMENTS SUBMITTED BY OTHER PERSONS AND ORGANIZATIONS IN THE CHICAGO AREA

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1:30 P. M., WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 15, 1952, AT LOS ANGELES, CALIF.

STATEMENTS SUBMITTED BY OTHER PERSONS AND ORGANIZATIONS IN THE LOS ANGELES AREA

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TWENTY-SIXTH SESSION

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TWENTY-SEVENTH SESSION

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TWENTY-EIGHTH SESSION

1:30 P. M., TUESDAY, OCTOBER 28, 1952, AT WASHINGTON, D. C.

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STATEMENTS SUBMITTED BY OTHER PERSONS AND ORGANIZATIONS

APPENDIX: SPECIAL STUDIES

ORGANIZATIONS REPRESENTED BY PERSONS HEARD OR BY SUBMITTED STATEMENTS

A

J

M

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XYZ

PERSONS HEARD OR WHO SUBMITTED STATEMENTS, BY ALPHABETICAL ARRANGEMENT OF NAMES

A

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SUBJECT MATTER

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